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ABSTRACT

This report is based on a George Washington University (GW) workshop on service, learning, and individual development that was held at Airlie, Virginia on January 28-29, 1977. The three papers in Part I address the broad issues of how experiential learning can and should relate to the liberal arts curriculum. They include: "Designing Education to Optimize the Interplay of Theory and Practice," by Morris T. Keeton; "Experiential Education and the Liberal Arts," by Robert F. Sexton; and "Career, Experiential, Liberal: Three Educations or One," by Frank van Aalst. The nine papers in Part II describe the GW service-learning programs in law, education, health care, arts administration, and sociology. Part III briefly summarizes a number of the issues that were discussed in the workshop sessions. (Author/LBH)

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# Service, Learning and Individual Development

## Relevance Revisited: Curriculum Development in the Humanities

**No. 1**

MARSHALL W. DAVIES
EDITOR

George Washington University
Division of Experimental Programs
Washington, D. C.

# RELEVANCE REVISITED: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE HUMANITIES

## A SERIES OF REPORTS ON FOUR WORKSHOPS

CLARENCE C. MONDALE
GENERAL EDITOR

**RELEVANCE REVISITED: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE HUMANITIES is a series of reports on four workshops held by the Division of Experimental Programs, George Washington University and supported by the National Endowment for the Humanities.**

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SERVICE, LEARNING AND INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT

MARSHALL W. DAVIES, EDITOR

GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY 1977

# INTRODUCTION

Academic humanists, with considerable encouragement from the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH), are beginning to entertain two unfamiliar ideas. The first is that they share interests among themselves that transcend departmental loyalties. The second is that their professional interests include concern for the directions of curriculum change and development in their home institutions--in the humanities and as the humanities relate to general education and to institutional mission. It is one thing to entertain the unfamiliar ideas. It is another to know what to do with them. We hope that this series of four reports, having to do with the practical implications of those ideas at conventional institutions of higher learning, may contribute to more informed discussion among colleagues sharing our concerns.

Over an eight-year period, the George Washington University, with the support of NEH, has been involved in a major program in institutional development in the humanities. The GW program emphasized "alternative" approaches to liberal education: field-study; work-study; issue-oriented courses; policy studies. The program attempted to make our curriculum more directly responsive to student interests and community needs. Over the years, a host of experimental courses and programs were launched, with interestingly mixed results. As of June 1977, NEH support for the GW program terminates. A small follow-up grant from NEH has made it possible for us to offer a series of four workshops on topics of particular concern to our program, as a means of reflecting upon our experiences in company with interested colleagues throughout this region of the country. That same grant provided for this series of reports.

The four workshops featured presentations by guests of national reputation and participation by educators from throughout this region and from GW. The first workshop addressed issues related to making work-placement part of liberal education. The second discussed a range of administrative strategies for effecting curricular change. The third reviewed attempts at GW and elsewhere to involve humanists in the study of public policy. The final workshop assessed the growing interest in making local materials the subject of study in the humanities.

The structure of these four reports reflects the structure of the workshops themselves. They were held at the Airlie Conference Center, Warrenton, Virginia. They lasted one day, beginning on Friday afternoon and concluding at noon on Saturday. They included plenary sessions devoted to presentations by our guest speakers, review of the GW activities in reference to short working papers developed by GW participants, and small-group discussion of general issues of interest to participants. Each of these reports includes papers by the guest speakers, the GW working papers and a summary of issues raised in the small-group discussions.

C.M.

# PREFACE

In recent years, experiential learning in many forms has gained wide acceptance in American higher education. To a large extent discussion of experiential learning no longer centers on its appropriateness for higher education, but on which model of experiential learning is most appropriate in which situations. In many "traditional" institutions, however, experiential learning is still looked upon with suspicion and is strongly resisted, especially if it is to become part of the liberal arts curriculum.

George Washington University is one such "traditional" institution which has developed an "acceptable" form of experiential learning: the Service-Learning Program. George Washington's Service-Learning Program consists of classes which combine experiential learning (a work placement) with traditional classroom learning (a seminar). The Service-Learning Program was developed and is administered by the Division of Experimental Programs. Its current structure evolved from earlier attempts to introduce "relevance" into the curriculum through "work-study" arrangements in the Washington, D. C. community.

This report is based on a workshop on Service, Learning and Individual Development that was held at Airlie, Virginia, on January 28-29, 1977. The three papers in Part I address the broad issues of how experiential learning can and should relate to the liberal arts curriculum. The papers in Part II describe the George Washington Service-Learning Program and some related projects. Finally, Part III briefly summarizes a number of the issues that were discussed in the workshop sessions.

It is the hope of the staff of the Division of Experimental Programs that this small volume will be of some use to those who are attempting to establish service-learning programs of their own.

MWD

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# I. BACKGROUND PAPERS

The three papers which comprise Part I of this volume were distributed in advance to the workshop participants as "background papers." The authors--Morris Keeton, Robert Sexton and Frank van Aalst--need little introduction among those persons involved in experiential education. Their participation in the workshop provided a broad perspective on the value of service-learning and similar programs.

Morris Keeton's paper, "Designing Education to Optimize the Interplay of Theory and Experience," calls for the design of educational programs which combine traditional methods of instruction and experiential learning. He then provides "hints for instructors" which are illustrative of this approach and a "recommended policy" on the design of such programs.

In his paper "Experiential Education and the Liberal Arts," Robert Sexton examines the interrelationship between experience and the liberal arts. He cites several examples of this interrelationship, illustrating the great potential in experiential learning for liberal arts education.

Frank van Aalst in "Career, Experiential, Liberal: Three Educations or One!" presents an approach to undergraduate education which relates career education and experiential learning to liberal education. He proposes to accomplish this by making "liberal skill clusters" a part of the liberal arts curriculum.

# DESIGNING EDUCATION TO OPTIMIZE THE INTERPLAY OF THEORY AND EXPERIENCE

Morris T. Keeton*

## Introduction and Statement of Thesis

Alex Haley, in his book Roots, tells of the tribesman who can recite the genealogy of his family for many generations without an error. If the purpose of education were merely data transmission, however, we could provide for it better today by programming our computers and by teaching everyone to ask questions of the computer. There is much to be said for such education if the potentiality for computer storage and retrieval systems is fully appreciated.

But I believe that education has a greater mission. It should transform the individual. It should generate the visions and the thought systems through which these individuals in concert can transform the society.

What kind of education can work such transformations? Only the kind that makes much better use than conventional instruction does of the electrifying possibilities of combining significant experiences of the realities being studied with the information and theory about these realities which can be transmitted by abstract symbol systems.

After a brief statement amplifying this thesis, I would like to identify some "hints for instructors" which implement this general principle and provide evidence of its fruitfulness. Then I will summarize what I call a recommended policy on the design of educational programs intended to have the recommended potential for human transformation.

## Hints for Instructors

How would you like to fly in an airplane piloted by someone who had learned to fly entirely by reading books, hearing lectures and discussing and writing about flying?

* Provost and Vice President, Antioch College (terminating June 30, 1977).

How would you, as a teacher, like to try to teach children to read entirely by letting them hear and talk about reading rather than go through the experience of reading, reading, and more reading?

The answers to these questions jump out at us.

1) The use of experience in learning is absolutely essential to the reliable achievement of at least some learning tasks. For that learning to be of first quality there must be provision for appropriate experiences to be central to the strategy of instruction.

2) An experience relevant for one learning objective will not be relevant for some others. Therefore, the intelligent use of experiences as a strategy of instruction requires that each experience be an experience of that performance, behavior, or phenomenon which we intend to be well done or fully apprehended as the outcome of this learning effort. If the intended outcome is reading skill, the experiences that are critical are reading experiences. If the intended outcome is high competence in piloting aircraft, the experience must be in actual or effectively simulated piloting of aircraft.

As I have tried to apply these understandings to teaching, and as I have observed the successes of other teachers in doing so, the hints which follow have emerged from these experiences.

1) Early in a learning endeavor the commitment and energy of the learner must be enlisted on behalf of that endeavor.

To enlist the appropriate level of commitment and energy and appropriate sustaining of this commitment, the learning tasks should include experiences or tasks which the learner finds immediately rewarding or feels will have longer range results greatly desired by the learner. In the Juarez-Lincoln Center of Antioch College in South Texas, the students are people who are deeply committed to improving the lot of Spanish-speaking people in American society. Only a few years ago the use of Spanish in the Texas elementary and secondary schools was prohibited, and the common experience of children studying in those schools was that of having their culture and their language denigrated in school. Seventy percent of the students are Chicano, so for them it is the empowerment of their own people which is the agenda. In Howard County, Maryland, a group of upper-division undergraduate students and master's students in Human Services are staffing, under appropriate supervision, three community mental health centers which could not be offered to the communities being served if it were not for the participation of these students. The motivation to learn is enormously

enhanced by the engagement of students in these types of genuine application of what is being discussed in their classes and in their readings.

2) Learners often approach a subject with biases which greatly complicate and hinder the learning activity. Merely pointing out these biases to students and telling them that these are biases and should be set aside will normally have little effect. The student must undergo experiences memorable enough to unseat, or at least shake, those biases and to enable a process to get underway in which the student practices acting contrary to the bias.

In the late 1950s in the course of teaching critical teaching skills dependent upon an understanding of set theory, I discovered that many students, especially women students, had been socialized to think that they could not do mathematics-like tasks and could not like, and did not like, such activity. Taking a hint from a book by Blum and Broder about the problem solving tactics of students, I persuaded the students to undergo an experience in which each one would talk out loud while attempting a fairly simple but original mathematical task. Students were asked to verbalize their feelings as well as their cognitive steps. I was startled to learn that some of the students with the greatest mathematical aptitude were not solving the problems at all because they spent their time repeating their feelings that they did not like mathematics, could not do mathematics, and were wasting their time and mine. When they were encouraged by the simplest hints and suggestions to go ahead and "try it anyway," and when, as a consequence, they had great success, a number of them came to recognize that they could enjoy this kind of work and could do it superbly well. Similarly, I used to be the college pastor in a very anti-ecclesiastical college climate. Students were nevertheless curious about religious phenomena and took my course in Present-Day Religion in larger than normal numbers to meet the Level I Humanities requirement. I discovered that they would consider without prejudice ideas as presented in Confucianism, Hinduism, or Buddhism, which ideas they would reject out of hand if presented as coming from the Jewish or Christian tradition. So I would introduce discussion and debate of these ideas through the Far Eastern religions; then later in the course we discovered those ideas in other forms and expressions in Jewish and Christian literature and were able to deal with both them and the biases in a more objective way than we could have done without a preliminary attack upon the bias.

3) The teacher's choice of roles which students may play in teaching and learning processes may greatly affect the yield of the learning and the efficiency of the learning.

In most college instruction, students do not play a primary role in evaluating their peers' work unless they are more advanced students acting as teaching assistants. In 1957 to 1961, I participated with some 15 other Antioch instructors in an experiment in independent study. One of the conditions of this experiment was that the instructors were committed to devoting no more time to the course as a whole during the experiment than they had done prior to the experiment, no matter what the enrollments turned out to be. Also, we were committed to reduce our classroom contact time by 33 percent to 50 percent from

what was conventional in our courses. In the third year of this experiment, I unexpectedly had an enrollment three and one half times the size of the usual enrollment for the course. I was desperate for a method of maintaining good teaching while abiding by my commitment to limit the time investment in the course. As I was struggling with this problem, I learned about the experience of an Oberlin instructor of psychology who had turned over to students the task of evaluating the essay work of their fellow students. Her experience had been that when students assumed such responsibilities they learned more readily, at least in her professional judgment, than they had learned the same tasks when playing a less active role.

I adapted this idea to my own course. I provided the students the criteria by means of which I thought the essays should be evaluated. I had them go through the experience of writing one essay and receiving written feedback from me with respect to each of the criteria. Then I asked them, in groups of four, to read one another's essays and with respect to each criterion, to decide which essay provided examples of the best performance on that criterion and which of their four essays had the worst example on each criterion. If they wished, I was willing to join the discussion group briefly to attempt to referee an argument, but reminded them that even among professional judges there is sometimes disagreement on such matters. During this experiment, the testing office of Antioch College was overseeing the evaluation work by instructors. At the end of this particular course, the testing office slipped into the body of anonymously submitted essays which I was grading a sample of the essays of the previous year, without my knowledge that this tactic was being employed. The outcome was that the essays in which I had done 40 percent less of the evaluation work averaged somewhat better than the essays in which I had done the larger amount of work.

It is commonplace among teachers to say that there is nothing like teaching a subject as a way of learning it. I believe that this folklore expresses an important truth about teaching and learning; namely, that the taking of responsibility in the more significant tasks of learning, is itself a powerful factor in the efficiency and effectiveness of the learning effort. The experience of choosing and defining learning objectives, designing and choosing the ways in which they will be pursued, participating actively in the evaluation of their effectiveness, and redesigning the learning plans can enhance the effectiveness of the learning.

If the strategy of learning includes participation in experiences of applying theory, and if students can help to plan and evaluate and redesign the engagement through which the interplay of study and work contributes to learning, the chances of an effective learning system are further enhanced.

Aside from the choice of learning objectives themselves, the choice of the methodology of learning in a course or other plan for learning is probably the most important responsibility for instruction. I have always resented the loss of classroom time for the processes of planning the work of the course; but I discovered a number of years ago

that one can invite the students in a class or other learning venture to form a small steering committee with rotating membership which meets periodically with the instructor to evaluate the progress of the course and replan its strategy and tactics. In activities of this kind the student is not only learning subject matter of the course, but is also learning to learn. Since learning to learn is an even higher priority for higher education--or should be--than learning the particular subject matter of one course, it is a very important task in which to take advantage of the effectiveness of experiential learning.

4) When confronted with error, a learner may ignore the correction if merely "told" that the learner's idea is erroneous. Reality testing of his mistaken idea is a more powerful corrective. One of the advantages of laboratory work in a science is this effect of firsthand experience of the realities in bringing home the lessons to be learned from making mistakes. For the learning of some things, it is more memorable to have made a mistake and experienced the consequences of the error, than to have learned the matter correctly to begin with. A student who participates in a political campaign as a part of his studies in political theory and political practice, is likely to have the benefit of this principle.

5) To gain a skill, one must practice that skill over and over, experience evaluation of the performance, and repeat the effort. In my early years as a teacher of critical thinking, I was discouraged by the limited amount of improvement of student performance after the taking of a test on each of the different kinds of skills which were taught in the course. I began to try out giving the students a larger number of opportunities to practice each skill. Finally, I discovered by practice how many different exercises of a given kind were required for a particular group of students to reach 100 percent success in mastering the skill to an acceptable level. I finally had to create a manual of exercises which on some particular tasks contained as many as ten different opportunities to attempt to master that particular skill.

There is a great deal of complaint today about the inadequate writing skills of students. It is my belief that one of the causes of this inadequacy is not that the teachers fail to provide a statement of appropriate standards or to provide appropriate examples, coaching, and even critical feedback, but rather a lack of writing practice. A key part of the problem is that one must practice, practice, practice, and practice still more, in order to master any such complex skill, especially one as complex as writing. To get an adequate amount of practice today, however, it will be necessary to provide students a method of getting evaluative help from among themselves rather than relying upon the amount of one-to-one service from expensive professionals which would otherwise be required by an adequate amount of practice.

6) The teacher is sometimes the greatest obstacle to the provision of an adequate proportion of appropriate experiences in the design of a learning venture. This fact results from the need of the teacher to perform in certain roles which should be shared with students, or to give a disproportionate amount of the teacher's performance to roles in which the teacher may excel or get greatest satisfaction but not contribute in an optimal way to what the student needs to learn. It is easier

to tell people what they should know than it is to elicit their learning it in the ways most likely to fix it in their minds and generate in them the deepest understanding of its meaning. It is more fun to "star" in the roles we enjoy and do best, than it is to subordinate these instructor needs to the learning needs of students. If teachers want to learn to teach best by going through the experience of a division of labor which is more fruitful for students, they will need to have feedback from students on the options that might have this more salutary effect.

7) "The system" can beat the teacher, but "the system" can also make a star out of an average instructor. By "the system" here, I mean the climate of the campus or other learning environment within which the teacher and the students are working and the policies which govern the manner in which the learning venture may be conducted. For example, many of us teachers have complained about situations in which our students were simultaneously pursuing five courses, taking part in intercollegiate athletics or other extramural activities, and coping with their social life as well. In response to this complaint a number of colleges (notably Hiram College and Colorado College) have tried out the system of having students take only one course at a time, with that course being concentrated into a much shorter than ordinary period. This change from many concurrent courses to one after another is an example of attempting to adapt the system to the facilitation of the work of teachers and students. For almost two decades we have known that Antioch College in Yellow Springs, Ohio, has a larger measurable impact upon its students' values and certain other outcomes of their learning than other colleges with which it has been compared in research studies conducted by outside agencies. I believe that one of the causes of this relative productivity is that Antioch has a well-functioning requirement that students alternate work and study. This "system" embodies some of the hints which I have been mentioning before. It also creates a climate more favorable for the teachers thrusting responsibilities upon students and gaining their cooperation in the learning endeavor.

I encountered another example of the effect of the system upon what I could do as an instructor when, about fifteen years ago, I was teaching a senior seminar in an interdisciplinary topic. This senior requirement has been instituted by the faculty to bring about an interplay among majors in different disciplines who could themselves, as a collective, bring to bear more expertise on such a problem than any one of us instructors would be able to do with our limited specialized knowledge. But I observed that when the major in biology presented a recommendation which was poorly grounded in economic theory, the economics major in the seminar was withholding criticism. Even I, though an amateur in that area, recognized that we were not getting the benefit of the expertise that was present. When I questioned the seminar members about this fact, they acknowledged that it was true, but pointed out that if they "showed up" their peers through criticism in the class discussion, since a portion of the grade in the course was dependent upon performance in class, the victim of their criticism would have his grade lowered. We solved this problem by developing an agreement that the grade would not depend upon the initial performance in class on this kind of specialized knowledge, but would depend upon the student's use of such knowledge as gleaned from his peers in the final version of his

essay. Subsequently this campus of Antioch College abolished the use of letter grades and grade point averages, because of various unfortunate effects of the grading system upon our students' efforts to learn. This is not to say that grading systems may not be used to create helpful extrinsic incentives to learn, but it is to say that the pros and cons of such use of grading systems is a serious design problem in learning systems.

8) The choice of subject matter and the sequencing of its use in a learning venture can affect both motivation of students and comprehensibility of the material. Some years ago the Antioch College faculty were trying to create in every area of learning significantly different options as to the means by which students might pursue that learning. A question arose as to why there was only one sequence by means of which students could be introduced to physics. Some of the physics faculty felt that this sequence was inherent in the nature of the knowledge of the field. A similar feeling was held by members of the chemistry faculty with regard to chemistry. After much argument, however, a few faculty in each of these disciplines were permitted to design alternative introductory courses in which some of the more interesting and more complex problems in the application of the discipline were the starting point for study, and in which it was not necessary to have calculus as a prerequisite competence to grasp the problems and begin to work on them. These "crazy" notions, though flying in the face of conventional wisdom, turned out to be more productive for some students than our traditional ways of teaching. Also, it emerged that sometimes they salvaged for chemistry and physics prospective majors who otherwise would have been turned away or turned off.

9) Genuine significance in what is achieved or what is learned makes a difference in the motivation for further learning. It is, therefore, important to find ways for really significant things to happen in the course of a learning venture. During the early days of Antioch College in Columbia, Maryland, there were serious drug abuse problems in the community and even among some of the students. This particular Antioch Center was educating people for vocations in human services. It was therefore decided that in the context of some of the courses certain students would be encouraged to participate in the formation of an organization called "Grassroots," which was a youth-assisting organization prepared among other things to provide paraprofessional assistance to young people with drug abuse problems. This organization was advised and supported by professionals in medicine, psychiatry, and community service. The students were of enormous help to young people in the community, and the fact that such high stakes were involved in their learning and putting together all of the things that needed to be known was an important fact in furthering their learning. In the Antioch School of Law, there is typically a docket of some 1500 cases per year in which litigation is managed by the faculty and students of the Antioch School of Law on behalf of people who otherwise could not afford legal counsel. One of the great advantages of the use of actual litigation as against simulated cases is that the consequences of mistakes are real and not imaginary.

10) Simulation of experiences can often provide a more nearly genuine test of the realities than can mere verbal symbolizations. Computers

can be of enormous assistance in this respect. Thus the point of the admonition to employ relevant experiences in learning is not a dogma favoring starting from scratch on everything; such a course of action would be manifestly inefficient, expensive, and too time consuming for the advancement of knowledge which is essential to human well being in today's complex society. I recently witnessed a learner using a computer which was programmed to help teach paramedical personnel, presumed to have radio contact with a qualified doctor at a hospital, how to diagnose and treat an emergency medical case. In this particular computer program, a dozen options as to which data to get first were displayed on a screen, and the learner could indicate a choice by merely touching the screen at the appropriate point. The computer gave an immediate answer as to the data thus obtained, and the learner could go on to the next choice. For most learners making their first attempt with this particular problem, the patient died before getting to the hospital. There is an obvious advantage to beginning this kind of study with simulations.

11) Teaching, as I said at the beginning, has a function in the transformation of persons and not merely an information-transmission function. One of the functions of teaching is to enable students to understand the whole pattern of functioning of people in vocational and other roles. Unfortunately, the normal array of teachers in a university is composed almost entirely of professional academics. The sources of satisfaction which are predominant for academics are different from those which are predominant for, say, lawyers or doctors or engineers or plumbers or politicians or pilots or people who prefer other kinds of work. The learning system in which the student is routinely and significantly exposed to diverse models of vocational and other roles is in this respect a superior learning system to that of the ordinary university. Work or service experiences can expose students to a more adequate variety of such models than can a single campus setting.

12) On many university campuses today, a major point is made of the effort to have the learning enterprise remain neutral with respect to issues of value. In the world of work (including work in government) there is less likely to be a pretense of separating values from ideas. Value commitments cannot be dodged as easily in work settings of normal employment, as they can for students on the campus where they are not employees. For the benefit of such experience for learning to be exploited as fully as it should, however, it is necessary that the faculty accept the responsibility for helping students to elicit from these experiences some understanding of what goes into the making of well-grounded ethical judgments or policy decisions.

## A Policy on Design of Educational Programs

Building upon these hints, upon the theory of knowledge, and upon research on learning (Bruner, Coleman, and others), I have attempted to summarize in outline form the characteristics of a well designed educational program. The outline reads as follows:

I. The characteristics of a good design of educational programs include these:

A. With regard to the learner(s), it seeks to optimize

(1) Match with learner objectives,
(2) Match with learner's convenience, and
(3) Match with learner's background and abilities.

B. With regard to the environing society, it seeks to optimize

(1) Match with high priority social needs, and
(2) Efficiency in use of the society's resources.

C. With regard to content of the program, it seeks to optimize

(1) Its use of the functions of the experiential components of the program (see II below), and

(2) Its fulfillment of the theoretic functions of the program (see III below).

II. The functions of an experiential component in educational programs, as disclosed in research and practice to date, are:

A. Gives learner direct acquaintance with realities referred to by words and ideas being learned;

B. Evokes greater interest, more sustained motivation of learner;

C. Facilitates memory;

D. Provides unmatched means to practice, develop skill;

E. Provides tests of the truth of concepts and of their adequacy for applications to intended realities.

III. The functions of the theoretic components of educational programs may be defined thus:

A. Provide an organizing framework essential to the data's having meaning;

B. Facilitate storing and retrieval of information;

C. Make possible prediction and projection;

D. Thereby facilitate the testing of ideas via checking their experiential implications; and

E. Extend human control in the pursuit of purposes.

It is my hope that the organization CAEL, a consortium among some 250 institutions of higher education which is concerned with experiential learning, will be able to improve upon this outline and fill it out

and to assist interested teachers and institutions across the country in improving the effectiveness of instruction by sophisticating practice in this field.

As a teacher of critical thinking skills I have found no strategy that approaches in effectiveness the combining of two things: 1) an enormous number of student attempts to think validly through an increasingly large array of increasingly complex problems in a widening variety of content and contexts, and 2) the use of a variety of conceptual, informational and imaginative inputs provided at junctures in the experiential procedures where a readiness to reflect upon the subject matter of learning has been heightened or sharpened by the experiences. Strategies designed to these specifications are almost sure to elicit deeper understanding, greater motivation and energy to learn, and more precise grasp of data and concepts than strategies which rely upon either experience or theory alone.

On this need to combine high competence in theory and in pedagogy with vision, imagination, and first hand experience, let me cite one last example. The most sophisticated of Antioch's ventures in the assessment of the learning of complex and difficult tasks is probably its current venture at the School of Law in certifying selected capabilities in the skills of advocacy and lawyering. These include interviewing skills, analytical skills, and negotiating skills. The foundation skills or capabilities in a number of the good advocate's responsibilities are capabilities that should flow from or emerge in the course of, a liberal education process; for example, the ability to make well-grounded political and ethical judgments and to adhere to them reasonably well in one's conduct; the ability to write a well-reasoned argument or brief for a position; the ability to speak persuasively and to conduct an oral communications process effectively; and the ability to grasp the critical elements of a culture or social environment and of its dynamic, and to understand the functioning of normal and of deviant individuals within such an environment, and to apply this understanding to the defining and securing of the rights of an aggrieved or an offending party. My belief is that none of these capabilities can be developed by a person to the level of that person's potential without substantial use of experiential learning among the instructional strategies.

On the whole, colleges have in their objectives been content with half a cake. They have wanted students to understand cultures, but not deeply enough to become astute judges of causation or insightful inventors of ways to ameliorate social problems and to cope with individual life crises. Or they have aimed to create effective speakers in grammatical usage and rhetorical style, but not persuasive communicators in a complex social situation. Our experiences at Antioch, though still very limited and incomplete, convince me that the depth and sophistication of learning achievable--in a word, the quality and outcome of education feasible to reach--are far beyond what present standards require or contemplate.

# EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION AND THE LIBERAL ARTS

Robert F. Sexton*

I prefer to comment on a few instances which may illustrate, for those committed to liberal arts education, the potential or usefulness of experiential education. I'll leave aside for now intricately argued justifications of these linkages.

Every time I've talked or written about experiential education--how to do it, the ideas behind it, or how to define it--I've forgotten about a superb quotation on the nature of experiential education and the liberal arts we included in a volume we use for students. By incorporating this quotation into the catalog we distribute I inadvertently committed the quotation to its grave: I have no reason to expect students read it; I doubt that anybody else has; and I usually forget about it myself. But I do remember it this time, and it is a highly artistic statement of what I wish to talk about.

It comes from Ken Kesey's novel, Once a Great Notion. The novel is Kesey's autobiographical account of his efforts to adapt to the chaotic world of his family's logging business in Oregon. In his efforts to use what he thought to be humane values as an antidote to the materialism and grubbing acquisitiveness of his family as he worked with them in their logging operation, Kesey opened one chapter with an illustration of the situation in which he found himself:

> To know a thing you have to trust what you know, and all that you know, and as far as you know in whatever direction your knowing drags you. I once had a pet pine squirrel named Omar who lived in the cotton secret and springy dark of our old green davenport; Omar knew that davenport; he knew from the Inside what I only sat on from the Out, and trusted his knowledge to keep him from being squashed by my ignorance. He survived until a red plaid blanket--spread to camouflage the worn-out Outside--confused him so he lost his faith in his familiarity with the In. Instead of trying to incorporate a plaid exterior to the scheme of his world he moved to the rainspout at the back of the house and was drowned in the first fall shower, probably still blaming that blanket: Damn this world that just won't hold still for us!1

Well, I may have been wrong, but it seemed to me that Omar the pine squirrel's fate provided a delightful explanation of the uses of both liberal arts and experiential education.

What we try to do through experiences is familiarize students with the Inside of a situation, but at the same time help them understand that the Inside and the Outside of the situation are related, and that

* Executive Director, Office for Experiential Education, University of Kentucky.

you cannot necessarily survive on the Inside without knowing the Outside. This is especially important in times of rapid change, which Omar experienced and which we are experiencing in the United States now, when the outside of one's environment, whether it be board of trustees, or limited funding, or a political constituency, or an OPEC, can drastically affect individual well being. Yet knowledge of the Inside, especially for the young person, may be extremely difficult to obtain through standard pedagogical approaches--most normally reading books. It seems to me that a lot of knowing has to do with wandering through--hopefully with some guidance--one's environment and dealing with the issues, problems, personalities, clashes, intransigence, mottled thinking, creativity, brilliance and ignorance that go together to make up the situations in which most of us spend our work lives.

An experiential education is one where the learner completely immerses himself or herself in a situation that makes demands of him or her in the same way it makes demands of other people. It may be, for example, that the learner will do real work under the supervision of an experienced mentor and will be expected to produce and at the same time expected to understand the nature of that production. Simultaneously, unlike Omar the pine squirrel, they are also to be familiar with the "outside." From an academic perspective, this means reflecting on that experience from above or "outside" of it. With outside help, most often from a faculty member, they're expected to pull themselves away from the day-to-day environment and observe their environment and their role in it in its larger context. The effective and sensitive individual has to be able to look at things in many different ways, both as an "insider" and an "outsider," and basically that's what we expect experiential education to force upon the learner.

I have a few illustrations of this. One occurred when I managed a state government internship program and taught a seminar for the fifteen carefully selected students in the program. These students were all functioning members of state agencies, with substantial levels of responsibility, and they were all on a personal basis acquainted with the workings of state agencies and state politics.

In our seminar we were exploring the power of the governor's office. I assigned T. Harry Williams' biography of Huey Long, which I had used several times before in undergraduate history courses. I used the book despite the fact that students in my regular college classes had a great deal of difficulty with it. It was too long--almost 900 pages--and so filled with detail that the regular students never cut through the detail to the general understanding which an explication of Long's political style and personality could have shown them about the nature of power. The detail got in the way of the understanding. Despite these hesitations, I used the book. It took on entirely new meaning for the interns of state government and was--I think--a great success. Indeed, the fact that they understood one governor (the governor they were then working for), and worked in agencies which reported to the governor, and were tied up in the laborious details of bureaucratic management, made the detail of the historical account meaningful to them. They could say to themselves, "I saw that situation happening in my department and we reacted this way." Or "The commissioner of my department would have reacted differently in that situation!" Each of these students, because

of his or her experience base, had a substantial personal experience with history. I don't mean that they understood history. They gained historical consciousness and sensitivity about the immutable nature of institutions. By studying one governor from almost 50 years earlier, they saw they were tied up in a pattern that wasn't necessarily unique to themselves with implications beyond themselves and their immediate surroundings. One liberal arts subject area took on new meaning for this group of students because they could better understand the importance of analytical detail based on their experience.

Let me cite another instance of this relationship. When I was working on my doctorate, I decided to do my dissertation on Kentucky politics in the twentieth century. I moved from Seattle to Kentucky and began my research on a subject which had not been dealt with by other scholars. Kentucky politics has been and is one of the most incredible tangles of partisan factionalism one could ever find. As I got deeply into my subject there seemed to be no substantive difference between candidates, or issues, or personal qualifications; but there were intense and bitter campaigns, with personal attacks and occasionally bloodshed and death. These Democratic party factions around strong individuals were such that to this day you can find people talking about "Chandler democrats" or "Barkley democrats," even though both namesakes have been inactive for a generation. And the only thing that seemed to make the whole thing hold together was the joy of the scramble for the spoils of office or simply for holding power.

Well, as a careful historian, I made every effort to make what seemed to be a nonsensical and irrational situation into one which could be rationally explained. I tried to determine exactly what divided the various factions of the democratic party and why individuals sought office and specifically what issues were involved. I assumed that an irrational system based on personal allegiance without commitment to anything more substantive was only the surface, and that if I could only look deep enough I would find that issues of major impact were really dividing various constituencies. I provided an interpretation of Kentucky history in this rational fashion.

Since that time I have become much more active in Kentucky politics, and I must say that it has made me reconsider some of the laughs and quizzical looks I got from political old timers when I talked about my interpretations. My political involvement has convinced me that these factions (which still exist in a very real sense) are indeed irrational alliances formed around political personalities. I found that the role of the independent or issue-oriented political operative is interpreted by politicians as untenable. The politicians assume that everyone who is active in politics represents a particular "rising star," and that they must be aligned to that individual. It is also assumed that a philosophy of government or advocacy of a particular issue is an unlikely motive for political involvement. While I realize that there are people who are involved for these reasons, it is clear that most are not.

The gist of all of this is that my scholar's efforts to rationalize a situation which seemed irrational were proven to be wrongheaded. I now know as a participant in the process, and also as a student, that in

this situation my naive assumption that people always act for rational reasons or for reasons beyond personal self-interest were inaccurate, and, therefore, in some respects my efforts to rationalize it distorted history. I have no doubt that my work as a historian of Kentucky politics has been enhanced by working in the political process. This, of course, isn't any surprise, and is one of the factors that account for the phenomenon that most of our best historians are older, as opposed to brilliant young mathematicians, for example. But on the other hand, it does tell me that it's going to be difficult to teach political history, which I am sorry to say is often one of the most meaningless subjects in the eyes of undergraduate students, to young people who do not have experience in the political process. Naturally, I cannot assume that internships will or should provide all the necessary experience, but I do suggest that activity in societal or political processes can enhance the ability of undergraduate students to understand the processes we try to teach in such an area as history.

Now let me move to another instance of the interrelationships of experience with liberal arts. I'm skeptical about the capacity of large multi-purpose public institutions, and in some cases smaller nonpublic institutions, to convey the general understanding of the individual's place in the scheme of things which we hope that liberal arts education provides. I tend to agree with Edgar Litt, who concluded in his book called The Public Vocational University,[2] that the public vocational university is designed to meet society's needs for adaptive, normal and technical behavior. One of the results of the vocationalism of the university is a tendency toward compartmentalized functions and individuals, making it difficult for young people to identify role models. As a result, many students take the easy way out in determining modes of thought and lifestyles. Litt argues, for example, that the result was an easy and uncritical movement toward the "youth culture" in the late 60's and early 70's. If indeed the vocational university is compartmentalized and systematized, then excursions into other worlds, to identify other role models, to test diversity of interpersonal communication and expression, and diversity of intellectual exploration, must come as a result of different experiences. Experiences in or out of the university should give the young person a varied number of ways in looking at the adult culture which aren't provided within the university. One example of this would be to encourage students to examine the interrelationships between knowledge and power at the institutional level, in government and business and industry.

Another instance of the relationship between experiential education and a liberal arts education which needs more thoughtful consideration and exploration arises when we consider the liberal arts as education for "citizenship" or as preparation for service to community. Related is the issue of instruction in ethics and the development of personal commitment. I'll ask the reader's indulgence in packaging all of these items together, but I do so because it seems to me that the central purpose of liberal arts education continues to be to help individuals to come to some personal understanding of the part they will play in society and of the values they will bring to bear on their lives. The necessary equipment includes understanding of the relationships between manipulation and accomplishment and between success and satisfaction.

It seems likely to me that only by making a contribution, or by "serving," can one come to grips with the importance of service and of the satisfaction that making a contribution can bring. This issue of "contribution" and "service" is also germane to current discussions of careers and the liberal arts. I think we need to help students come to some personal decision about the relationship of their jobs to the other parts of their lives. This hope grows out of the suggestions of Thomas Green that we should make a distinction between a "job," meaning the way one earns a living or the labor one performs, which does not necessarily have anything but a personal benefit; and one's "work," which is a contribution with implications broader than the individual and which is of more lasting importance than earning a living. It may be impossible for the inexperienced young adult to draw this distinction, even though the distinction between these two types of activity and the distinction between service and other forms of personal accomplishment are an unchallenged objective of liberal arts instruction.

It seems to me elemental that the acquisition of a personal set of values results from experiencing those values. It seems to me that only by understanding one's own work can one come to a clear understanding of the value of the individual. This conviction of individual worth can only result from wrestling with personal turmoil and conflict and not as a result of logical argument or other cognitive processes.

This is why we have recently tried to develop a humanistic educational project, aimed at examining the ethics of decision making in public life, by integrating full-time internships with a seminar dealing with the nature of ethics, of personal values, and of human development. This particular project is designed to show that students who are participating in real community activity, where decisions are actually being made, may be better able to productively wrestle with complicated value and ethical questions than those who are trying to examine these highly personal issues in a relative vacuum.

While these instances point to the great potential of experiential education for the liberal arts, I don't want to leave the impression that I see experiential education as a panacea, or that this technique will automatically create sensitive and fully potent individuals. There are a number of dangers which must be reckoned with as experiential education is integrated into the liberal arts curriculum. Chief among these is the tendency of institutions and faculty to follow the course of least resistance. This path is one whereby students in liberal arts areas are expected to undertake an out of the classroom activity for the purpose of developing skills related to a particular job or skills for future employment. I don't deny that this is a valid activity, but it's not necessarily an objective which enhances the broader purposes of liberal arts instruction. Most importantly, it's an objective which opens the possibility that students will simply be absorbed by the system rather than be forced to make a positive effort toward constructive changes within the system. What's needed is interaction between the student and others, most often faculty members, who are not directly involved in their daily activity. And this too presents a problem, because thus far most institutions of higher education have not adapted to accommodate the work of individual faculty members with individual

students. Neither have they integrated individualized learning and especially experiential education into their regular functions.

In summary, all of my reflections point to the hope that through a combination of pedagogical approaches, including action in the adult world, young people will be encouraged to develop commitments. I also hope they will be set on the track toward determining an appropriate personal lifestyle, vocation, and sense of service, and it's my belief that these commitments and choices can be nurtured through challenges and struggles with real problems.

[1] Ken Kesey, Sometimes a Great Notion (New York: Viking Press, 1963), p. 148.

[2] Edgar Litt, The Public Vocational University: Captive Knowledge and Public Power (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969).

# CAREER, EXPERIENTIAL, LIBERAL: THREE EDUCATIONS OR ONE!

Frank van Aalst*

The frustration I encounter daily as a trained historian directing experiential learning as head of a career development office in a state-supported liberal arts college is bad enough; it increases to anxiety when I am expected to put on paper how liberal, experiential and career education fit together. While I think most persons would agree that all are valid forms of education, they would also agree that trying to incorporate them in a single integrated program is extremely difficult if not foolhardy.

One reason for this difficulty is their radically different pedigrees. Liberal education, with its emphasis on teaching the leaders of a society how to think and to appreciate the higher forms of culture, traces its ancestry to Aristotle and considers Oxford its modern model. Experiential education is a more recent phenomenon, and is associated with John Dewey. Its contemporary expression, particularly service-learning, is traceable to idealistic movements for social change such as volunteer action, civil rights demonstration and anti-war protest of the 50s and 60s. In contrast, the career education family is very conservative, explicitly preparing the young to preserve the established order.

Not only are these lineages very different, they are also in conflict. Aristotle insisted that liberal education was preparation for leisure, not for work. He made an absolute distinction between liberal and career (mechanical) education. Liberal educators have stressed the classroom and campus as the best place to acquire a liberal education; community experience and learning from other than professors have been scorned. From the other side, the experientialists have stressed the limitation and even irrelevance of the classroom, the sterility of intellectualism and the need for personal involvement in righting the wrongs of society. This idealism contradicts the career educationist's concern for security, and the criticism is mutual. Until recently, career education and liberal education have been separate, and the community college boom reaffirmed the differences. But the new orthodoxy emanating from Washington now calls for integrating them.

When we focus on what has actually been happening in liberal higher education institutions, however, we discover that the three forms of education have coexisted. The collegial experience of campus life has long been considered an essential component of good liberal education, and international program descriptions have advertised the intercultural living experience more than the foreign culture courses. Career-wise, liberal education has been the basic training ground for the professions and for public service. In America it has long been seen as the means

* Dean of Career Development and Professor of Humanities, College of Charleston (South Carolina).

of improving occupational status, and more and more occupations have made a bachelors degree the basic entry level requirement.

Recent attempts to increase the experiential and career components in liberal arts colleges have met with mixed reaction. While there is more than adequate basis for open conflict, there are also examples of coexistence if not coalescence. A word of caution is required. Even though the numbers at the present time make it seem that liberal education is firmly entrenched, it is important to recognize that it is on the defensive. Career and experiential education are new generations in their families, and have the advantage of youth and vigor. Our primary concern at this stage, I am convinced, should be to make certain we preserve the essential values of liberal education.

Liberal higher education is not doing well; not only is it widely criticized, its own defenders speak in confused, uncertain voices. The challenges of experiential and career education are thus directed at an institution already weakened by recent changes that have diluted its traditional goals and forced it to reexamine its role. Should it reaffirm a more elitist position to preserve its academic purity, and allow other types of higher education institutions that make no pretense to provide traditional liberal education take care of the new student? The community colleges have done that to a degree. But even more important is the need to define clearly what is essential in a liberal education and then ask who in our society should have the opportunity to benefit from it. Is it desirable to provide a liberal education for everyone in our society? My answer is "yes."

Liberal education is not a necessity for survival; it is only necessary for human progress, and many civilizations have failed at a point to provide it. Thus we are obliged to give priority to liberal education. Instead of challenging its defenders to modify and compromise, to accommodate less critical needs, we need to challenge the proponents of career and experiential education to insure that they include only that which is compatible with liberal education, that where possible they adopt the same goals, and that accommodations in a single institution or a single curriculum be made only if liberal education will not be diluted.

I am aware that there are many related issues. Open admissions puts students in college who are unable to benefit from liberal education because they can't read. The subject of another paper might be how to make the curriculum less academic but no less liberal. There are goals of all higher education which are very important, such as basic communication and computation skills. They are also goals of liberal education. Another major issue is the implications of a faltering economy coupled with a demographic pattern that has fewer college-age youth in the next decade than in the last. While a total analysis of higher education would include these, their inclusion might add new problems but would not change the analysis above.

Career education, then, must relate to traditional liberal learning outcomes, and prepare for employment in those occupations requiring a liberal education. It must also relate to the growing knowledge industry, and to the human services, and address the question of a shift in

expectations in the whole society, which requires the employer to modify job descriptions to match the education level of applicants.

Knowledge acquisition, personality development and skill training are all parts of a total education. Liberal education has focused on cognitive development, or knowledge acquisition. Affective learning was considered more of a by-product. It is this area that experiential education addresses most effectively. Skill training has been avoided even though it was in many ways implicit. As we recognize a greater diversity of occupations open to liberal arts graduates, it is time to identify those skill clusters that are already implicit in liberal education and then make them more explicit in a liberal curriculum without dilution or detraction from its main purpose.

The liberal skill clusters here referred to are not to be confused with the essentials of liberal education; or the basic elements of all higher education, such as reading, writing and computation skills; nor with general maturing, such as ability to assume responsibility, and to interact in a healthy fashion with other persons. These skill clusters all require basic competence in each of the above-listed areas, and are an attempt to define skills in terms of principls and theories that in themselves require a post-secondary level of intellectual activity. These skills are not specialized nor are they routine or mechanical. They are general and theoretical. It should also be noted that this classification requires a new classification of occupations. Career counseling utilizes interest and personality testing, but actual skill testing is frequently omitted at the higher education level. This skill cluster scheme would introduce that critical element into higher career education.

The six liberal skill clusters are:

1. Information Management: the organizing of knowledge; from filing and data processing to cataloguing and computer programming; from maintaining inventories to accounting and auditing.

2. Research and Investigation: the use of a diversity of sources, from libraries to laboratories to public opinion polls; including such diverse activities as archaeology and detective work, journalism and academic research.

3. Design and Planning: the imaging of solutions and of the future, whether it be in graphics, interior decoration, landscaping, architecture, environmental impact, or economic planning. Many of the principles involved here are normally associated with fine arts, but are much more widely applicable, as is creativity.

4. Communication-Persuasion: while everyone needs to communicate and occasionally to persuade, this refers to advanced forms required in the media, advertising and sales. Teaching is also a communication-persuasion skill, though unfortunately it has been considered important only for those going into education.

5. Human Services & Relations: the Human Services field is a rapidly expanding one, and is quite compatible with the idealism of many youth. While there are basic principles of helping persons professionally, health, mental health (counseling) and social work are three specialized areas.

6. Administration & Management: organizing people and resources for the accomplishment of an institutional task is a skill in great demand. Public Administration and Business Management are often separate college departments, but the liberal skill cluster referred to here covers them both. There are administrative tasks associated with all the above-mentioned liberal skill clusters. Perhaps a difference of emphasis can be seen between politics-law and business-industry. Information Management is closely related to this skill cluster but the emphasis here is on the management of people and institutions.

This approach to career education interjects liberal values in a number of ways. (1) Skills are not tied to specific occupations, and each is transferable among many. (2) Nor are they tied to specific academic majors. An art major could be interested and skilled in management or communication or design; a biologist in research or planning or helping; a historian in information management or research, administration or communication. (3) Each of these skill clusters is a valuable asset for the whole of life. (4) Each also requires theoretical understanding, critical thought and judgment. This kind of career education makes the liberal student more employable, and helps the student see the relation between liberal education and a meaningful occupation. In these terms it does seem possible to provide a liberalized career education.

A final question is whether a career component based on teaching these skills can be incorporated in a liberal arts curriculum without damaging or diluting it.

Let there be an introductory course in each of the six skill clusters from which the student selects the three or four of most interest. Next, let the student select one cluster for emphasis, and take a second, more advanced course. As a junior or senior, the student could do an internship which combines his academic major knowledge and skill cluster ability, and includes an academic project which calls for application and integration of both academic discipline and skill cluster theory.

Such a curriculum module could readily be included in most liberal college curricula with no disturbance of the general requirements or major requirements. Actually, it is the model already operable for much of secondary education.

This fits together almost too well, and combines all three educations. It enhances affective development, liberalizes career preparation and applies liberal education, demonstrating how it can be used for a lifetime. There are many loose ends, and to my knowledge no such scheme has been tried. But it does have potential to check the dilution of liberal arts and meet the broad needs of the new student. I think

it worth trying as an alternative to restricting the values of liberal education to an elite group.

## II. WORKING PAPERS

George Washington University's Service-Learning Program combines experiential learning and traditional classroom learning by combining complementary work placements and seminars in a single course. The program currently consists of four regular courses and an independent study option, all offered through the Division of Experimental Programs. Service-Learning courses are offered in law, education, health care, and arts administration, while independent study in service-learning can be arranged in other areas. A service-learning course in community planning will be offered in 1977-78. There are also a number of other courses and programs at George Washington which have been influenced directly or indirectly by the Service-Learning Program.

The papers which comprise Part II of this volume were distributed in advance to workshop participants. They were never intended to be scholarly works, and no such claim is made for them. Rather, they were "working papers" intended to provide workshop participants with a basic description of George Washington's Service-Learning Program and related programs. Clarence Mondale's paper describes the origin of the Service-Learning Program, its evolution to its present form and its impact on the curriculum. Papers by the several service-learning instructors describe the organization of each individual service-learning course. Phyllis Stewart's paper describes a service-learning course offered by George Washington's sociology department, one of the "spinoffs" from the Service-Learning Program. A paper by Eric Sirulnik--formerly a service-learning instructor--and Robinwyn Lewis describes the Community Legal Clinic, a program for law students that is conceptually similar to the Service-Learning Program. Marshall Davies' paper discusses the outcomes of service-learning and, finally, Roderick French's paper comments on the inevitable frustration at not having had the impact on the curriculum that was once hoped for.

# LEARNING BY WORKING*

Clarence C. Mondale**

A major emphasis of GW's grant-sponsored activities has been the development of work-study courses and programs. The work-study course is focused upon the student work experiences, and readings and seminars are intended as means for lending perspective and enrichment to what the students are learning on the job, about that job and about themselves. The assumption is that by careful selection among work placements, the student can deliver useful services to the agency in exchange for what the agency contributes to that student's education.

The initial grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities included provision for a work-study course for advanced liberal arts undergraduates. That course was first offered in Spring 1970. We placed 21 students in community agencies, on a half-time basis, and contracted with individual professors to supervise appropriate study projects. Student enthusiasm was inordinate; agency response was good; the faculty involved usually made a good-faith effort. That first semester's experience made clear that sustained faculty interest was not going to be easy to achieve. Traditionally trained faculty drew from research interests marginal to the work students were doing in agencies; or, at the other extreme, condoned an off-campus "trip," letting diaries or journals, and student enthusiasm, earn academic credit. We saw that we had a long way to go.

During the next two academic years, we began to group students according to work placements. It became clear that there was significant student and agency interest in sections devoted to public interest law and to public education. By Fall 1971, we had developed sections in education and in law, and in each case located professionally trained individuals to direct the sections, one a professor of education, the other a graduate of our law school, later to become a professor there. By Fall 1972, we were organizing a section devoted to health care, with participation by professors from our medical school.

In Spring 1972, after negotiations with the departments of political science and sociology, we formally initiated a Service-Learning Program. Our intent was to make the Program the agent of "contract learning" on campus, whereby a sliding scale of credits would be granted for individually varying types of work commitments. The attempt proved premature. Participating departments were skeptical as to how much in fact was learned through work-study, and instituted set formats for their courses, with a set number of credits earned.

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* This originally appeared in a slightly different form in: Clarence C. Mondale, A New Direction for the Urban University: A Report to the Richard King Mellon Trusts From the George Washington University (Washington, D. C.: George Washington University, 1974).

** Director, Division of Experimental Programs and Professor of American Civilization, George Washington University.

At present we regularly offer four classes in "service-learning."* In addition, service-learning classes in political science and sociology, which we originally sponsored, are now regularly offered by those departments.

Each of the service-learning classes is interdivisional in nature: one each in law, education, health care and arts administration. Of these, the education class is the oldest. Students are placed in public schools, experimental private schools, and in education-related placements outside the school (e.g., museum education). They are expected to make a half-time work commitment; they attend weekly seminars; they submit a journal of the first month of their work experiences and do a research project. The objective is not simply paraprofessional training, and the course does not count toward professional certification. The Director of the Office of Laboratory Experiences in the School of Education teaches the course. Students earn six credits.

The law class attracts students intending to go on to law school. Students are placed in public-interest firms. Some of them work with a Consortium-sponsored Law Student in Court Program, assisting law students who are authorized through the SCIC program to represent indigent clients in court. Seminar activity introduces students to legal procedures and institutions, and emphasizes how the law serves, or fails to serve, the purposes of the larger society.

The health care class has gone through several changes. For three semesters a graduate assistant coordinated work placements, and a faculty member from the medical school acted as a kind of professional consultant during seminar sessions. Since Spring 1974, the Associate Dean for Allied Health Programs has directed the section. He has a serious interest in refining the techniques of work-study; in the need for some orientation to issues of health care among liberal arts undergraduates; and in improving the undergraduate preparation of students intending to go on to medical school.

Arts administration is the newest class. First offered in Spring 1975, it is taught by a drama professor who is also GW's Acting Director of Theater. The course attracts students with backgrounds in the fine or performing arts or in business. Students are placed in creative or communicative arts organizations for 15 to 20 hours per week. Weekly seminars, often with guest artists or arts administrators, explore the means by which an artist can reach his/her audience.

All of the above sections limit enrollment to fifteen students, and upper-level undergraduates are given preference in admission. A regular service-learning course in community planning will be added next year. A service-learning course in the department of political science follows a similar format. Students are given three credits for the work experience and three credits for the concurrent seminars. Focusing on "American Political Behavior," it has placed students in organizations attempting to influence local and federal political decisions, and has

* Individual descriptions of each service-learning class will follow.

made "influence" the topic of study. Most recently it has focused on lobbying groups. The course has been taught by professors of political science, and it counts toward a departmental major. Full costs of these courses have now been absorbed by the department.

The most ambitious effort in service-learning is that sponsored by the department of sociology. The department formally offers two courses, but students must enroll for both concurrently. The courses in combination amount to a semester-course, with students enrolling for fifteen credit hours. Each student spends at least 24 hours per week at a work placement. In addition, seminars meet three times a week. Academic requirements include journals; book reports; participation in the planning of seminars; evaluation of agencies; independent research; and term papers. The course examines local juvenile control and criminal justice systems. It attempts systematically to relate a set of sociological terms (e.g., "alienation," "race," "class," "conflict") to what students are observing and experiencing in their work placements. The course has been reoffered continuously since Fall 1972, and the department now absorbs all costs. A more or less formal evaluation of the course on its first offering confirmed that in the minds of the students the course had been extraordinarily successful.

Conforming to the work-study principle is a senior internship required of students in a new undergraduate major in urban affairs; an undergraduate internship in clinical psychology; the Community Legal Clinic; and expanded community-based activities in the department of urban and regional planning.

The urban affairs major is designed for students interested in careers in research and policy analysis. During the senior year of the program, a student is placed as an intern in an agency or research organization related to his or her occupational choice. The placement is for two semesters (six credits per semester), giving the student time to develop an understanding of the routines of the agency and a familiarity with its policies. It also provides practical work experience and a degree of competence in a specific subject area that will later be useful when students apply for jobs. Requirements for the major consist of 51 hours of upper-level courses, with emphasis upon the skills of quantitative research. The major first became available in Fall 1972.

Also appropriate to the concept of work-study is a new undergraduate internship in clinical psychology. The undergraduates work in partnership with graduate students, and are placed in selected Washington public schools, offering counseling in personal and family problems that affect student performance in the classroom. A particular effort is being made to develop programs in the Anacostia* schools. The internship is part of a larger plan for a counseling center in which students can be trained while delivering community services, on the model of education in medical schools.

As an outgrowth of Title I-funded activities in Anacostia, our law school has established a Community Legal Clinic. The activities of the

* A low income area in southwest Washington, D. C.

Clinic resemble those of a public-interest law firm. Law students earn credit toward their degree while acquiring practical experience in law as it affects communities of poverty. Students interview witnesses, prepare affidavits, take depositions, and do other work usually done by lawyers. Student projects arise from needs as defined by community leaders. Under the direction of a member of the faculty, students do research and prepare briefs for community groups. Students enroll for a new course, "Clinical Studies in Urban Law." Mellon funds supported the Clinic for two years; it is now fully supported out of the law school budget.

A separate grant from the Mellon Trusts supported fellowships in urban and regional planning during the 1969-74 period. This made it possible for U & RP to greatly increase the scope and scale of its field-based academic work. The department has been a principal participant in our Anacostia program.

Two graduate-level work-study programs, each successful as educational experiments, failed to develop needed budgetary support from home departments and from other outside sources, and so were terminated. An internship in public administration placed ten students each semester in ten different urban agencies. Mellon funds supplied student stipends for two years, and reduced support for a third and final year. In 1970, we provided a stipend in addition to a tuition waiver for each of ten participants in a Leadership Training Program directed at selected public school teachers of demonstrated leadership potential. Interest among teachers was high: in 1971, 108 teachers applied for the 8 places available for D. C. teachers. Our support had been made contingent upon the securing of support from other sources. Adequate alternative funding was not secured, and after two years our support was withdrawn and the program terminated.

All of the present offerings in work-study are assured of permanent status in the university curriculum with funds supplied out of tuition income generated. The work-study idea holds great promise. It promises a cooperative and exactly appropriate interrelationship between urban agencies and the university, bestowing mutual benefits. Institutional support for work-study, however, has been slow to develop. The professional schools, with some tradition of work-study and internship, are relatively tolerant of the idea of a clinical education delivering requested services to a host agency. Even among faculty in the professional schools, however, there is some prejudice in favor of more traditional forms of study and uneven support for the work-study idea. Among faculty in arts and sciences, that prejudice is much more pronounced and there is almost no tradition of clinical education.

Agency response to undergraduate student performance has been surprisingly positive. We have come to depend upon certain agencies for placement in certain work-study sections, and agency satisfaction, under those conditions, becomes predictable.

The undergraduate student, in spite of dramatic shifts in mood among the student population over the last few years, has uniformly insisted that the work-study course responded to what they felt to be fundamental needs. They have few chances to "try out" potential

careers. They value the chance to reflect upon the work experience in classroom seminars. They resent the heavy-handed institutional distinctions made between education and training, arguing that each takes on full meaning only in terms of the other. They are much less distressed than are the faculty by a certain necessary disorderliness in the work-study courses. They seem to place a value upon underdefined and non-definable aspects of the experience as, for them, necessary to the reality of the learning they feel to be taking place. It may be that they have their point, and that a necessary disorder is essential to our most creative learning experiences.

Most of our arts and sciences faculty has been at best indifferent to such considerations. A debate within that faculty in Fall 1972 focused on work-study as a primary target. Opponents of the work-study idea argued that learning should be confined to the classroom; that training has no part in a liberal arts education; that experience, unless contained by theory, is uninstructive. By now most such matters are not so simply stated, but there are good if insufficient reasons for faculty resistance. The distinction between education and training is, among other things, a distinction in faculty status. Teaching, traditionally, is entirely in the hands of the faculty. In work-study the teaching role is in some degree divided among the faculty, the agency and the student himself. Work-study has won support in particular major departments, but among faculty in the college of arts and sciences generally it is rather tolerated than endorsed. Our efforts can have only a marginal influence upon such deep-seated faculty habit and interest.

Throughout the university, there is little significant faculty demand for more extensive experiment with work-study courses. Post-grant prospects for the work-study idea thus turn upon "external" pressures: new kinds of faculty recruited; the availability of added funds; the presence of appropriate off-campus initiatives (agencies need to become more self-conscious about how to make education a normal part of their mission); and, among all concerned parties, a determination to press for sound answers to important but uncomfortably unconventional questions. There is growing demand from state legislatures that public universities take their public service responsibilities seriously. There is increasing demand for valid but unconventional kinds of education among nongraduate and postgraduate "new" students. There will no doubt be increasing external pressure, in the relatively long term, upon institutions like our own, to develop the means for combining a rigorous education with placements in that larger and "learning" society just beyond the edge of the campus.

# SERVICE-LEARNING IN LAW: URBAN LEGAL SERVICES

Gregory H. Williams*

The Service-Learning Program in Law is designed to provide an opportunity for undergraduate students to combine field work and academic study to gain an understanding of American urban legal systems. Depending upon particular field placements, student job experiences include research and/or investigation. Each student is expected to devote 15 to 20 hours per week to his or her field placement. All students work with lawyers or third-year law students. Those legal organizations in which students are placed include the following: the D. C. Law Students in Court Program, the Public Defenders Service, the Community Legal Clinic of the National Law Center, the American Civil Liberties Union, and the Neighborhood Legal Services Program. Frequently students so enjoy their placement that they spend more than the minimum time required for credit.

To provide an opportunity for discussion of field work and to give a broader overview to students, regular seminars are held to allow discussion of readings related to the urban legal system in general and to the student's work in particular. In addition to discussion of weekly reading assignments, various seminar assignments are made to enrich the total learning experience. Students are also required to complete a research paper that focuses on a particular urban legal problem, or the effect of law on social change. The paper is designed to be a reflection of the course in that students are expected to combine academic and field research. In essence, students are expected to consult scholarly writings as well as draw upon the knowledge and experience of those in the Washington legal community. This effort generally provides an insight into the frequently substantial difference between theory and practice and emphasizes the need for a more pragmatic approach to policy making.

The course is limited in size (no more than 15 students) to ensure the seminar atmosphere; and, although there frequently is "creative tension," the class is enjoyed by both students and faculty. Obviously students are most interested and excited about the field placement. Judging from comments on the program in the past three and one-half years, the placements are generally very fulfilling. Most students are placed at Law Students in Court or with the Neighborhood Legal Services Program. This means they do investigative work in areas of the city with which they are unfamiliar culturally as well as geographically. Despite the occasional "ego-tripper" most students handle their jobs with a high degree of responsibility and integrity. It appears that a good pre-screening and interview process helps produce this result.

* Assistant Director, Division of Experimental Programs and Lecturer in Law, National Law Center, George Washington University.

The placement agencies come to rely upon and value student assistance, particularly since our program, unlike many others, requires such a substantial time commitment. To the extent possible, agencies provide orientation and assist students in performing their assigned tasks. Because of the limited personnel in most of the agencies we work with, we have found it imperative to select students who can function with a minimum degree of supervision. Obviously, because of the nature of the work and initial inexperience of students, training and supervision is needed and provided. However, an often overlooked issue is whether or not the student volunteers sometimes divert more resources in terms of supervision by agency personnel than they provide in staff assistance. The issue of possible drain on agencies and, if such does exist, how it can be compensated deserves close investigation.

As far as classwork is concerned, most students view it of secondary importance at best. Therefore, it becomes incumbent upon the instructor to stress the utility of the seminar in providing an opportunity for developing an overall perspective on the urban legal system. Another difficult problem with regard to the class has been to maintain some humanities and interdisciplinary emphasis in view of the increasing vocational interest of students; despite protestations to the contrary by the instructor, many students see the course as either helping them gain admittance to law school or helping them succeed once there. To meet this problem we have experimented with a number of texts and approaches. For example, with regard to reading assignments we have used assignments ranging from legal literature like Felix Frankfurter's account of the Sacco and Vanzetti case and George Bernard Shaw's article on "The Entirely Reasonable Murder of a Police Constable" to sociological and political studies.

In addition to the reading assignments, discussion of work experience and scholarly articles, a variety of guest lecturers make presentations to the class. In addition to lawyers we frequently have police officers, probation officers, educators and others to discuss specific problem assignments with the class.

# SERVICE-LEARNING IN EDUCATION:

# HUMAN RESOURCE ISSUES IN EDUCATION

Honey Nashman*
Marcella Brenner**

The Human Resource Issues Service-Learning Seminar is concerned primarily with educational settings and their relation to and impact on our society. An average of eleven liberal arts undergraduate students has chosen this seminar each semester for the past four years.

Students in this seminar have been placed in traditional education and special education settings of K through 12 as classroom aides and assistant counselors, in museum education departments as aides, in post cardiac rehabilitation centers and hospitals as paraprofessionals, in abortion clinics as assistants in counseling, as aides in bilingual educational settings, and as aides in recreational centers.

Applicants for the class are interviewed to determine their skills and interests. Students develop behavioral objectives with the help of the instructor. The instructor secures placements for the students, attempting to develop a relationship and rapport with the agency which will contribute to a useful experience for the student and the agency. However, the University's principal responsibility is to the student. The student shows the list of objectives to his site supervisor who ideally suggests changes and assigns the student to activities which will enable him to realize his objectives. At the end of the semester, the objectives are useful as a basis of evaluating the student's experience in the placement. For example, one student interested in bilingual education was placed at the Eaton Elementary School and assisted in preparing a reading list which could be helpful to both the children at the school and their parents. The student felt that if the parents could become more involved, this would encourage their children to accomplish more. One of her objectives was to observe the children and participate in the activities of the school and to be included in the planning and decision-making necessary to run a class.

A good percentage of the students have taken advantage of the fact that they may take the seminar twice for credit. In the second time around many change their internship placement in order to gain a different perspective of the Washington community and to be of service to other persons and groups. For example, a student participated as an aide to a family counselor in an elementary school one semester and as an art therapy assistant in a different elementary school the next semester.

* Director, Office of Laboratory Experiences, School of Education and Assistant Professor of Human Kinetics and Leisure Studies, George Washington University.
** Professor of Education, George Washington University.

The seminar sessions are planned to meet the changing needs and interests of the students. We have guest speakers, field trips, student reports and discussion of current issues in education. Students turn in weekly logs, and at the following seminar these are returned with relevant comments. They are encouraged to come to the seminar early to share their logs. These logs include a description of the placement and students' observations concerning their daily routines.

The students and their placements are keys to the success of the seminar. A good deal of time is spent finding the right experience for each service-learning student. The objectives of each student and the willingness of people in the field to supervise and assist are essential for an effective match.

It seems that the coupling of liberal education with career education components, using experience as a catalyst, produces measurable results in the humanities area. Such results have been most strongly revealed in the individual development and attitudinal change comments from the students. Examples are cited below.

> "During my placement, two major types of change have taken place in me. One is an attitudinal one, the other an accumulation of more knowledge in terms of facts."
>
> "This course was an excellent experience for me. The books and class discussions helped me to clarify my ideas about education. The placements gave me an opportunity to work in the real world."
>
> "I feel very lucky to have been a part of the class. Our field work complemented the seminar discussions; the discussion and readings, in turn, added greatly to our placements. It was a most valuable course--combining the real world with the ivory tower is an extremely important concept in my mind. After trying it with this class, I can unequivocally say that it works."
>
> "Because of my field work, I think I learned to be more patient, . . . more sensitive to others' viewpoints and feelings, more thoughtful and diplomatic in dealing with problems."
>
> "I've seen the change that care and understanding can effect in others and want more than ever to be able to make some of those changes myself."
>
> "This learning experience was so refreshingly different from the routine absorption and regurgitation of information. I felt myself growing and changing as I learned, for I could observe and sometimes implement the application of this knowledge as I received it."
>
> "I would recommend this course to anyone who is seeking personal growth through fieldwork experience combined with relevant discussions and excellent supervision."

# SERVICE-LEARNING IN HEALTH CARE

## ISSUES IN AMERICAN HEALTH CARE

Anne Tongren*
Michael McCally**
Joanne Lynn***

In a recent paper,[1] Dr. K. Patricia Cross noted that the academic disciplines in our present model of education form too narrow a base on which to build a society and reported that, of the jobs of the 1980's, only 20 percent will utilize what a college student learns. On this basis she called for an expansion of the concept of academic excellence to that of educational excellence, which would encompass development of a broader span of human abilities. Her proposal utilized a three-dimensional model of work functions developed by the U. S. Employment Service: work with data, work with people, and work with things. She suggested that "the task of education be to develop the student's greatest talent to the point of excellence" in one of those three areas, and that we also "prepare him or her to live in today's world by developing at least minimum competence in the other two areas." "Equal opportunity," she asserted, "means more than the opportunity to develop mediocre competence in the area of someone else's strength."

Such a proposal finds a response in the recent development of programs in service-learning. In these, students are actively involved in the process of their education through service and are less passive recipients than in the isolated classroom experience. Service or experience-based learning can be a necessary and valuable part of a liberal education. Indeed, without it, liberal education is an abstraction. By bridging the gap between a theory and its practice, work and study, fantasy and life work, classroom and community, service-learning allows the student the experience of l'homme engage--". . . man in and of the world."

The service-learning class in health care has been designed to provide students with the opportunity to combine field work and academic study to gain an understanding of the present health care system and its problems as they affect us all as consumers. The course is based on the premise that most of us respond subjectively to problems concerning medicine or health; we have strong personal feelings and biases that determine our individual attitudes toward, for example, disease, injury, behavior, aging or death. The course, therefore, focuses on problems facing the American health care system in responding to very basic human needs and attitudes.

* Assistant in Instruction, George Washington University.
** Associate Dean for Allied Health Programs of the Medical Center and Associate Professor of Health Care Sciences and Physiology, George Washington University.
*** Robert Wood Johnson Clinical Scholar and Resident in Internal Medicine, George Washington University.

The seminars deal with several issues related to the delivery of health care. Who receives adequate health care and who does not? What is the power structure in the medical profession? What should be done to revise relationships between patients and medical personnel? What is the role of women in medicine? What about alternatives to the present practice of medicine in this country such as free clinics or systems used in other countries? In order to deal with these issues, we draw on all of the seminar participants' experiences in health institutions, talks from various health workers, films, relevant readings, and, most significantly, current experience gained in the field work placement.

The specific structure of the course designed to meet these objectives is as follows:

I. Field Placement

Each student participates in a field placement experience which may include almost any health-related activity--patient care, research, education, public policy, etc.--enabling him/her to come in contact with significant numbers of people involved in health care. Each student is expected to devote 12 to 20 hours each week to this placement. Such experience is intended to give each student a first-hand exposure to some of the issues and problems related to American health care as well as provide an opportunity to explore an area of health care that is of interest. Students may generate their own placements, but assistance is readily available for those with problems of "access or decision-making." An ongoing file of past placements, with student responses and related papers, is maintained and made accessible to students, as is consultation with instructors. Since the term is so short, students are encouraged to become maximally involved in their placements early in the semester. There must be a placement chosen and initial contact made within the first week of the term.

II. Seminar

Each week the class meets in a two hour seminar. In general, each seminar focuses on a topic, and readings are assigned or recommended in advance. The semester schedule is somewhat flexible and can be altered to meet the interests and problems of the particular students and placements.* Students are encouraged to read widely in the popular and specialized literature and to bring to the

*We have found the chief weakness in the course in the past to lie in the difficulty of meshing seminar topic and discussion with placement experience. We plan in the coming semester to place greater emphasis on aspects of current health care issues as perceived by students in their placements, as well as encouraging inter-group discussion of placement experience per se.

seminars items of particular relevance or interest. Outside speakers may be brought in, or a film shown, or a panel discussion may augment the general pattern of presentation plus group discussion. These meetings are intended to provide opportunities for students to increase their knowledge of the health care field, to question experts, to discuss issues that arise in field placements, and to develop their abilities to analyze and critique argument.

III. Research Project

Each student also selects a limited area for more intensive research. This may or may not directly relate to the field placement. In general, this will take the form of a research paper. However, organization and presentation of a seminar (which may include a guest speaker), an extended, annotated bibliography of a subject area, preparation of quality audio-visual material, and other such projects are welcome alternatives. It is expected that the student will not merely collect data, collate quotes, or write narrative accounts but will critically evaluate and analyze problems, issues, solutions, arguments, and the like. The instructors are available to offer advice and suggest resources concerning these projects. The project topic and form is to be chosen in the first month of the term and reviewed with the instructor by mid-term. It is recommended that the project proposal be in the form of an informal written outline. The projects may be completed and submitted at any time but must be submitted at least three weeks prior to the close of the term. It is hoped that this in-depth research will give each student an opportunity to develop expertise in one area and that each student will relate this area to the ongoing class discussions.

In order to determine the degree to which the above objectives have been met, an evaluation process is used which is based on data received from students as well as from placement supervisors.

I. Evaluation of students

Students are given "credit" or "no credit" rather than a letter grade. Satisfactory involvement in all three phases is required for credit. Each student may request, at the close of the course, that a letter of recommendation be prepared. Supervisory personnel at the field placements submit brief written evaluations to the

instructors,* who, in addition, observe each student in his/her placement setting during the course of the term. There are occasional brief quizzes which are not graded but are used by the instructors to guide course development.

II. Evaluation of course

Since this is a somewhat experimental course and is constantly changing, each student is asked to write a brief evaluation of the course which includes comment on the instructors, the requirements, the organization, and the field placements and their impact on the student's own ideas, abilities, self-perceptions, and knowledge.

Since the inception of the course in 1972, a total of 126 students have been enrolled. Of these, 84 have been female and 42 male, a male/female ratio of 1 to 2. Part of the reason for this may lie in the increasing emphasis on, and expansion in, the range of careers for women. For example, in the health care field, the recently developed areas of new health practitioners, such as the physicians' assistants program, broadens the scope of application for undergraduate students whose educational choices might at one time have been limited to medical or nursing school.

Students have come from a broad range of backgrounds, with undergraduate majors in American studies, biology, chemistry, history, political science, psychology, public affairs, and sociology. Others have included pre-med students, physicians' assistants working in a master's program, hospital chaplains, housewives returning to school, teachers changing careers, and musicians interested in exploring music therapy, to name a few.

For these, it has been overwhelmingly the possibility of a placement experience which has drawn them to the course. Judging from class discussions and from comments in students' evaluations, the common factors underlying what students seek have been personal growth through experiential learning, life work exploration, and significant human service. The first involves the opportunity to observe relationships between theory and practice; to develop a sense of how to get things done in groups, agencies, or organizations; and to identify and develop the interpersonal skills required for sharing and increasing such new awareness. The second involves the opportunity for vocational exploration, educational planning, and career making choice, as well as encouragement to look on all life's experiences as learning opportunities. The third factor involves placement in a responsible position where

*The term "instructors" is used here to encompass the roles of both the health care professional with major responsibility for the conceptualization and teaching of the course, and the graduate teaching fellow, whose role is to place, follow, and evaluate students in their work situation; counsel students concerning their placement and their course project; and administer the seminar program, invite and schedule speakers, with responsibility for correspondence, course literature, etc.

actions are of consequence to others together with an opportunity to experience a sense of accountability, to pay a price in terms of responsibility, and to gain a meaningful experience in return.

Beyond the expected hospitals and clinics, placements have ranged from NIH Research Laboratories, the House Select Committee on Aging, and Therapeutic Riding Programs for the Handicapped at Rock Creek Horse Centre, to the D. C. PIRG Health Care Group, D. C. Department of Human Resources, and the Washington Area Council on Alcoholism and Drug Abuse, Inc. In some instances students have become involved to the extent of prolonging their placement beyond the semester; on a number of occasions, students have been offered the possibility of continuing in their capacity as paid employees.

Although the students' criteria for a good placement outcome have not always coincided with those of the placement agencies, we have found that by helping students to focus initially on what they hope to learn from a placement experience the unproductive or ill-fitting placement/student combination is largely avoided.

The comments of supervisors to instructors at the time of placement visits and supervisors' written evaluations indicate that those assets most often sought in students by those offering placements include motivation, readiness to make a substantial commitment, initiative and an attitude of preparedness to learn, intelligence, responsibility, adaptability, flexibility, and a willingness to work. With such criteria in mind, students are screened prior to being admitted to the course. Other requisites are that they be upperclassmen or graduates, with sufficient time available to devote to a placement.

Apart from an occasional negative experience (e.g., "I was disappointed with the lack of responsibility"), most placements have had a highly positive and enthusiastic reception on both sides of the ledger. Such a response is reflected in such student comments as, "What I learned in the last three months could never have been attained just by lectures and text," and, from the placement point of view, from a hospital which had accepted four students during one semester, "Our prize four. Loathe to see them go. Industrious, interested, provoking opportunities to learn. Particularly bright. Would like to have follow-up on them. Send more next year."

Such commendations as these make the considerable planning and working out of details of the course well worth the effort and are in themselves telling tribute, not simply to this particular experience, but to the concept of service-learning.

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1 K. Patricia Cross, "New Forms for New Functions," in Dyckman W. Vermilye, ed., Lifelong Learners--A New Clientele for Higher Education: Current Issues in Higher Education 1974 (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1974), pp. 86-92.

# SERVICE-LEARNING IN ARTS ADMINISTRATION: THE ARTS AND THEIR AUDIENCES

Nathan Garner*

A large measure of a student's learning experience in the arts is comprised of a combination of formal classroom theoretical learning and less formal practical learning. Courses in dance, acting, painting, applied music, etc., have traditionally included learning-by-doing experiences. In keeping with this tradition, the faculty of the performing arts departments of the George Washington University felt that the same kind of experience would be of great value to the student who expressed an interest in the nature and function of arts organizations. At the same time, a number of Washington, D. C. arts groups expressed an interest in having volunteer student interns working with them. These arts organizations are well suited to providing educational opportunities to students because of the service nature of their activities.

The purpose of the course is to provide individuals with an initiation into the field of arts administration. The goal is an appreciation of the need for effective communication between artists and audiences, an introduction to the methods of achieving that communication, and an understanding of the nature, function, and operation of various arts organizations in the Washington community. The course was first organized for the Spring Semester, 1975. Since then, it has been offered four times with an average of eight students each semester. Students have come from a cross section of disciplines including: theatre, dance, music, and business administration. At the outset, student interest came primarily from the performing arts areas. However, gradually the emphasis has shifted to include more fine arts and communication arts students. Interest in the program on the part of arts organizations has been strong from the beginning and continues to increase as the reputation of the course develops.

The course is organized in a manner similar to those in Education and Health Care. Students are placed in a half-time (20 hours per week) internship with an organization in which the student expresses interest and to which the student can contribute in a responsible way. An interview between the prospective organization supervisor and the student is arranged in order to determine mutual compatability of goals, personality, etc. Each internship is expected to include meaningful tasks that the student is capable of completing, under supervision, and from which the student will learn significantly. Routine tasks are diligently avoided. Occasionally a student is given the opportunity to learn by observing staff and production meetings, but the emphasis is on the accomplishment of responsible tasks. The student is encouraged to arrange his or her schedule to allow for large blocks of time (preferably at least two whole days) to devote to the internship.

* Acting Director of Theatre and Assistant Professor of Drama, George Washington University.

The second aspect of the course is the meeting of weekly seminars which are structured in three distinct areas: first, background material concerning the basic elements of arts management is read and discussed; second, officials of various arts organizations come to the seminars to discuss problems of management of their organization; and third, students share intern experiences and discuss problems of management that they discover during their work experience.

Students are evaluated on the basis of three criteria. First, a written evaluation of the student's growth and contribution is solicited from the internship supervisor. Second, the student presents a log or final paper to demonstrate the knowledge and understanding gained in the work experience. Third, the student's participation in the seminars is evaluated.

In general the course has proved to be highly successful. Students have gained insight into the nature, function, and organization of the arts in the society as a whole. This understanding greatly enhances the student's ability to make value judgments concerning his place and the arts' place in his overall educational program. Many students also use the experience to project and clarify career goals that relate to their academic goals. Furthermore, the arts organizations benefit from the services of dedicated, interested students and from being required to focus their attention on the aspects of community service that they can and should be providing.

# SERVICE-LEARNING IN SOCIOLOGY: URBAN MEDICAL SYSTEMS

Phyllis Langton Stewart*

During recent years, urban universities have developed programs designed to be more "relevant" by focusing the student's attention toward activities off campus. Experiential situations are offered more and more as means to supplement traditional classroom learning methods. A new era in relations between the university and community has created a need for new inter-institutional relations and responsibilities. The responsibility for faculty who teach service-learning courses is to subject the program to academic evaluation. This brief paper describes the academic and work requirements for a service-learning course in medical sociology taught during the Fall Semester, 1976.

Purpose: Service-Learning in Urban Medical Systems is a 15 semester hour course designed to provide the advanced student with a macro perspective of health care delivery systems by combining experiential learning in the community with sociological analysis in the classroom.

Description: This course begins with the premise that a sociological analysis of health delivery systems is unique from other perspectives. It is based on theory and research analyzing concepts and processes of social structure, change, systems, control, interaction and power relationships. These processes are examined through independent literature review, participant observation in a medical organization, classroom lectures and discussions.

Course Requirements: Weekly Time Allocation

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|---|---|
| | Work placement |
| 20 - 25 hours | Written daily log of work experiences is graded every week. Two basic guidelines are used: is the student growing personally and is the student growing in sociological understanding? |
| | Independent reading assignments, weekly critique of book or assigned article |
| 20 hours | Development of and completion of a semester research project which combines work experience and sociological expertise. (Students are expected to have completed a course in Methods of Social Research and Statistics. In addition, a reading list for the summer was provided to |

* Assistant Professor of Sociology, George Washington University.

encourage preparedness. A preliminary class was held in the Spring to acquaint students, to make clear course expectations, and to confirm Fall placements.)

Classroom

3 - 4 hours — Discussion of critiques; sharing of work problems and experiences focused around personal and sociological questions; lectures and guest speakers.

Designing the Student Experience: For most students in this class, advance placement was obtained in Spring 1976 so that each student was prepared to begin work early in September. This involved the need for each student to define his objectives and learning goals, combining these with personal preferences. All students were interviewed by the instructor and several options were provided to them.* They were encouraged to examine in detail each option before making a placement decision. All initial contacts in agencies were made by the instructor. This included calling the potential agencies, describing the program in detail, and determining whether or not the agency could provide the experiential environment most likely to ensure personal growth. While some agencies have great potential as laboratories for learning, some are ill-equipped to add teaching to their community commitment. In addition, few agencies are prepared to provide meaningful educational experiences unless guided by a close working relationship with the faculty to whom the student relates his experiences. In specific, background data were collected from the agencies on the number of staff, the organizational goals, structure, resources, etc., and willingness to cooperate by indicating one person with whom a careful program could be established in consultation with the faculty and student. This is deemed important for a satisfactory placement because it increases the likelihood that student, professor and agency will cooperate to develop a careful groundwork for the student experience. In addition, it provides an opportunity for the agency to indicate how it can improve its service to the community by participating in an academic credit program. The agency must continue to meet its goals with the least disruption of routine. Careful design of the "experiential situation" will lead to success for all involved.

Course Evaluation: Student performance is weighted as follows:

30% — Work Placement and Written Daily Log. Agency personnel participate in the work evaluation at several points during the semester.

*Besides the usual background information, students were asked to indicate career goals, previous work and volunteer experience, placement preference and course expectations.

| | |
|---|---|
| 30% | Classroom participation, attendance, completion of assignments on time, and quality of written and oral products are included. |
| 40% | Research paper and weekly written papers. |

Students are asked to evaluate the placement, course and professor.

General Comments: This has been an exciting educative experience. As usual, unevenness of student performance does occur despite careful selection of students. Some students find it most difficult to be on time and to understand the need for meeting commitments. Continued counseling for some students during the semester created extra work for the professor.

In general, all the students grew personally, were able to sort out career goals and began to develop as incipient sociologists. This was exciting for us all to share and undoubtedly makes the program worth everyone's effort.

One problem for the students was defining their role to meet agency expectations. On the one hand they were assigned to participate. On the other hand they were assigned to learn by observing. The boundaries were not always clear to the staff of the agencies when adequate preparation had not been provided by the supervisor of the agencies.

For example, when a student attends a staff meeting as an observer (and takes notes), it is not always clear if the student should contribute previous observations to the group when these are requested by the leader. If the leader repeatedly requests the student to contribute, an uncomfortable situation may develop. This has been occurring despite the leader's knowledge that the student is observing. Continued interaction with agency staff has helped to reduce this problem but it still remains.

Another example arose in the selection of a research project. Agencies sometimes have topics they wish researched that have little relation to the course work or that require competence beyond the student's capacity. Sometimes the organization wants a "counting" project completed that lacks opportunity for student personal and sociological growth. Many agencies have needed education on the difference between a "sociological question" and a social problem. Again, faculty time to explain these differences is necessary.

Summary: This brief paper has demonstrated the position for careful design of a service-learning course in urban medical systems. The need to balance service with academic learning requires continuous monitoring of the placement experiences. One mechanism to arrive at examining the balance is the written daily log. Students can demonstrate their personal and sociological growth through careful examination of their experiences and through suggestions from others who read the log. Students are encouraged to share their logs to learn how others cope with

the balance of service, learning and academic growth. This course has been viewed by the participants as very valuable and an excellent way to put their learning in the context of the real world.

# THE COMMUNITY LEGAL CLINIC

Eric S. Sirulnik*
Robinwyn D. Lewis**

The community Legal Clinic (C.L.C.) is a five year old institution of the National Law Center of the George Washington University. It operates on the fundamental proposition that second and third year law students can gain invaluable practical legal experience while helping provide badly needed civil representation to numerous area residents incapable of retaining paid counsel. All of this is done while upholding the very highest of educational as well as professional standards.

The clinic has grown from fifteen students, supervised by one teaching attorney, to an effort comprising well over 100 students, four full-time attorney-teachers and two paralegal assistants. The annual case load of the clinic is approximately 3,000 persons, most of whom are residents of the District of Columbia.

The clinic is offered for a total of eight semester hours, usually spread over two or three semesters, under the course listing of Law 579, Clinical Studies in Urban Law. Aside from the representation duties in the courtroom and storefront offices, students are required to attend a weekly two hour seminar to discuss their cases with each other and their faculty member supervising attorney. In addition, during the course of the semester, various classroom presentations are given on substantive areas of law related to the clinical practice of students.

The fastest growing and currently the most ambitious aspect of the Clinic's client representation activities centers around its older Americans' involvement with P.E.P. (Protection for Elderly People). Through the P.E.P. program, the Clinic operates not only a bilingual (Spanish-English) storefront office located in a D. C. neighborhood which is heavily populated with older persons, but also a unique visitation program which provides on-the-site legal services to over a thousand of the city's elderly poor living in public housing.

The representation provided these older persons includes everything from will writing and probate counseling, to representation at administrative hearings before the Social Security Administration and in various divisions of the Superior Court of the District of Columbia.

Students in these two projects also participate in the presentation of a series of lay seminars on legal issues affecting older Americans. These presentations, which cover such topics as Medicaid-Medicare rights, estate planning, the Social Security system, Landlord-Tenant law and condominium conversion, and general consumer rights, are given at various

* Director, Community Legal Clinic and Professor of Law, National Law Center, George Washington University.
** Associate Director, Community Legal Clinic and Adjunct Instructor of Law, National Law Center, George Washington University.

neighborhood locations such as churches and civic groups on a regular basis throughout the school year.

Other C.L.C. projects offer a variety of non-litigational clinical experiences such as legislative drafting and legal research into several areas of substantive law. Such research is made available to other individuals, groups, and agencies interested in improving the quality of life of citizens who cannot afford counsel.

At a time when the legal job market is so tight, many law students ask themselves whether participation in clinical law programs is worth it. Their rationale is as follows: if I take part in a clinical program, I will be taking time from my classroom courses, my grades will suffer, and my chances in the job market will be diminished. Other students see clinical involvement as premature--they will have plenty of time to practice law after they graduate.

However, in many respects, the impact of the clinical programs on grades is positive. In a number of these programs, students receive a great deal of individual attention from the supervisory staff. Much of the focus of this attention is on improvement of analysis and writing skills. Most students, as a result, will do better in courses where such skills are all important. Additionally, many students find that handling actual client problems in such areas as trusts and estates, and contracts helps them to organize and understand their course materials in these areas.

Clinical experience has other beneficial effects for students entering the job market. At a time when great numbers of students are interviewing for jobs, any experience which makes one student stand out from the others is helpful. Students who have had clinical experience enter the interview room with something to talk about.

Perhaps the most useful job-oriented skill which is developed in clinical programs is the ability to deal with people. At the Community Legal Clinic, we have watched students who work with clients develop self-confidence and an assurance in relating to different kinds of people which readily translates to other situations. As any placement counsellor will tell you, a person who feels at ease in a job interview and can express him- or herself comfortably, stands a better chance of obtaining the job.

In our opinion, no work experience had during law school can be considered premature. As students learn all too quickly, law is not a uniform profession. The choices are multitudinous--both in substance and practice. Courses help students discover what substantive areas they prefer. Clinical programs help students determine what types of practice they prefer.

The student who has had some practical legal experience before graduation has a much clearer idea of what he or she would like to do after graduation. It may be that a student prefers writing and research to courtroom practice. Better to find that out during law school, than two years into the first job--especially when that first job experience often dictates a future career.

# OUTCOMES OF SERVICE-LEARNING: A PRELIMINARY ASSESSMENT

Marshall W. Davies*

In the fall semester of 1974, an attempt was made to "evaluate" GW's Service-Learning Program in terms of its goals and objectives. The planned evaluation never really got past the point of defining objectives. Those objectives that could be agreed upon were usually broad, if not actually vague. The one thing that everyone--faculty, students and division staff--agreed on was that they "felt good" about the courses. Everyone seemed to have some degree of confidence that the courses were academically sound but often had difficulty explaining the basis of that confidence.

Consequently, it was decided to undertake a descriptive study that would attempt to identify and describe in general terms the kinds of learning that occurred in the service-learning classes and the experiences that led to that learning. The study would attempt to describe what happened in the courses with only minimal concern for what was supposed to happen. The design was of the type often referred to as "soft research"; i.e., it was not based on statistical analyses.

In the spring semester of 1975, a sample of students from all of the service-learning classes was interviewed near the beginning of the semester and again near the end. Findings based primarily on differences between the ideas and attitudes that students expressed during their first interview and those that they expressed during their last interview, indicated that there were indeed several identifiable outcomes that applied to all of the classes within the Service-Learning Program.

The most obvious characteristic of the students' service-learning experiences was that those experiences were highly differentiated. That was, of course, expected because of the nature of the classes, but it made any examination of "learning" or "impact" quite difficult. Different students learning different things in different ways in different environments almost defied generalization. However, while individual experiences varied greatly in detail, there were some identifiable general effects.**

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*Coordinator of Curriculum Research and Coordinator of Service Learning, Division of Experimental Programs, George Washington University.

**In addition to the impact of the service-learning courses on the students, the students presumably performed valuable services for their placement agencies. It could be argued, in many cases, that this represented university responsiveness to community needs, but a consideration of that aspect of service-learning is beyond the scope of this discussion.

The service-learning classes had impact on the students in six main areas: 1) increase in knowledge of specific information; 2) broadening of perception of the subject area of the course; 3) providing many new questions (but few answers); 4) affecting prior attitudes toward the subject area of the course; 5) providing greater sensitivity to the human aspects of society's institutions; and 6) affecting individual vocational aspirations. It was not possible to identify an area of greatest impact, for the courses had impact on most students in more than one of the six areas, with different students being affected in varying degrees in different areas. It is interesting to note, however, that the first five of the areas fell more or less within the realm of traditional liberal education with only the last area being purely "vocational" in nature.

The ability to recall specific information was primarily the result of the more traditional aspects of the courses. Such information was usually related to the topic of the course and was "learned" as a result of such classroom activities as assigned readings, guest speakers, and individual projects and reports. Some field assignments also yielded varying amounts of specific information.

Students' perceptions of the subject area of each service-learning course usually broadened in two ways. First, students developed a more accurate idea of the content of each subject area; e.g., the amount of factual information available, the technologies developed and developing, and the issues (moral, ethical, political, etc.) involved. Second, students developed a broader concept of the boundaries of the subject area and an increased awareness of the interrelatedness of disciplines as they observed the extent to which "outside" factors influenced the area they were studying. All of this is what is often called "broadening of horizons."

As a result of their service-learning experiences, students began to ask many new questions about the topic of their class.* Trying out previously learned theories and facts in the arena of work brought up

*There was some evidence to suggest that this questioning generalized beyond the topic of the individual class. E.g., one student who started the course with a strong belief that the federal government should legislate comprehensive national health care, later began to question the probable effectiveness of such a federal role, and by the end of the course was struggling with the broader issue of the role of the federal government in American society; another student early in the course discovered and admired the work of a particular artist, later began to question the role of that artist's wealthy parents in her success, and by the end of the course was dealing with the issue of defining success itself.

new issues and caused a reconsideration of many old issues.* However, the experiences usually did not provide many answers, only new sets of questions. The process of dealing with new questions was closely related to changes in prior attitudes. Students came to the service-learning classes with many different individual attitudes toward the topics of their classes. The service-learning experiences invariably had an effect on those attitudes, although the effects were varied. Some students developed new attitudes, some had old attitudes strengthened, and a few abandoned old attitudes but, as of the end of the course, were still struggling with the development of new ones to take their place.

The service-learning classes were particularly good at helping students to understand the human aspects of society's institutions. Students generally came from their regular classes with a good theoretical understanding of American society and its institutions. However, they lacked an understanding of the human side of those institutions; i.e., the effect of individuals (their likes, dislikes, moods, aspirations, etc.) on the day-to-day operation of various organizations and agencies. Students were usually very much aware of their lack of understanding and were often concerned about it. Partially because of that awareness, and also because they lacked a "reality test" of the usefulness of parts of their highly theoretical educations, students tended to talk in terms of the "academic world" (of which they were somewhat cynical) and the "real world" (of which they were somewhat frightened). Their service-learning experiences often provided students with a better understanding of the human aspects of society's institutions and an opportunity to "test" some of their theoretical knowledge. Consequently, they appeared more comfortable with their knowledge of the relationship between theory and practice, tended to less often think of the world in terms of "academic" and "real," and had more confidence in themselves in general and particularly in their ability to make judgements and decisions.

In the vocational area, the impact of the service-learning experience was always present and often great. Some students intended to "try out" a particular career or learn certain career oriented skills when they signed up for the course, and their experiences in service-learning were often a major influence on career plans and decisions. However, even most of those who had no vocational motivations for taking service-learning formed opinions about the general topic of the course and their specific field placements as career opportunities (and even occasionally made major career decisions).

The impact of service-learning experiences tended to vary according to several controllable factors. For example, the extent to which the course helped students to understand the human aspects of institutions was sensitive to the field placement. Generally, a student's awareness

*For a discussion of the advantages of being confronted with such questions before the completion of the undergraduate degree, see John B. Stephenson and Robert F. Sexton, "Experiential Education and the Revitalization of the Liberal Arts" in Sidney Hook, The Philosophy of the Curriculum (Buffalo: Prometheus Press, 1975).

of such human aspects increased as the student's interaction with people within his/her own placement agency (or other organization) increased. Thus, the student who had to question police officers in the conduct of an investigation and the student who took an active part in her agency's staff meetings were helped considerably in their understanding. The student who opened mail and maintained files most of the time was helped little. Also, non-typical students* did not appear to achieve a much greater understanding of the human aspects of institutions. Such students had usually been well aware of the human side of institutions when they started the class, and so there was much less room for growth.

Finally, the student's ability to recall specific information about the topic of a class tended to increase when the class was organized on the model in which classroom experience and field placement were separate, parallel experiences.** This was probably due to the heavier emphasis on such things as readings and outside speakers in the classroom segment. On the other hand, the effect on students' prior attitudes tended to be greater when the class was organized on the model of classroom experience and field placement being one integrated experience. Again, this was probably due to the greater use of class time to discuss students' changing attitudes.

This study was, of course, far from definitive. It clearly raised more questions than it answered. Because of the "soft" design, fine discriminations could not be made. The six areas of "impact" were not discreet categories; there was obvious overlap among some of them. And we are still without an "evaluation" of the Service-Learning Program.

However, we do feel that we are now able to confidently describe some of the kinds of individual development that are facilitated by our style of service-learning. Perhaps most important, we have given up our simple question of "what is it that service-learning students learn?" for the less comfortable but more useful question of "what kinds of service-learning students learn what kinds of things under what kinds of circumstances?" GW's Service-Learning Program was originally based on the idea that the service-learning experience would result in certain traditional learning that should be valued by humanists, in addition to career-oriented learning. We now have some evidence that supports that original idea.

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* I.e., older students who had significant work experience.

** If little or no class time was used to discuss students' field experiences, students generally perceived the class work and field work to be separate, parallel experiences. If much class time was used to discuss field experiences, students generally perceived class work and field work to be one integrated experience. While there were apparent differences in outcomes between the two kinds of organization, neither was judged to be necessarily superior.

# FROM CHARLOTTESVILLE TO ANACOSTIA:

## AN ELLIPTICAL HISTORICAL NOTE RE THE FATE OF MR. JEFFERSON'S UNIVERSITY AND THE ASPIRATIONS OF THE SERVICE-LEARNING PROGRAM AT GWU

Roderick S. French *

One of the most creative and least studied of Thomas Jefferson's many enterprises was his scheme for a new kind of university. (Much is said about his having been the architect of the place, but little is remembered of the educational program which he wished to see actualized on that lovely campus. Not an uncommon species of misplaced attention in higher education.)

In Jefferson's original scheme, students were given unlimited latitude of choice as to what they studied because in his view "specialization had to be related to the whole of knowledge." The reason for this was that his larger aim was to create "a national intelligentsia competent to direct the practical life of the nation but also capable of reflection--a professional class liberally educated." (italics mine) However, Jefferson's vision was a doomed anachronism from the start. By the 1820's "most Americans were no longer able to understand a form of higher education at once rigorously professional--oriented toward practice--and opposed to specialization."1 Less than ten years after Jefferson's death his fine plan fell victim to sensible "reforms" which brought that noble university into conformity with the best practices elsewhere.

It remains instructive nonetheless to look at the hierarchy of six pedagogical goals outlined by Jefferson. Not surprisingly, they are stated in the reverse order from that of such lists prepared by most liberal arts colleges then and now. In fact, many colleges would rest content with the latter three and leave the first three to technical and professional schools.

> 1) To form the statesmen, legislators and judges on whom public prosperity and individual happiness are so much to depend;
> 2) To expound the principles and structures of government, the laws which regulate the intercourse of nations, those formed municipally for our own government and a sound spirit of legislation, which banishing all arbitrary and unnecessary restraint on individual action, shall leave us free to do whatever does not violate the equal rights of another;
> 3) To harmonize and promote the interests of agriculture, manufacturers and commerce, and, by well-informed views of political economy, to give a free scope to the public industry;

*Coordinator of the Humanities Development Project, Division of Experimental Programs and Associate Professor of Philosophy, George Washington University.

> 4) To develop the reasoning faculties of our youth, enlarge their minds, cultivate their morals, and instill into them the precepts of virtue and order;
> 5) To enlighten them with mathematical and physical sciences, which advance the arts and administer to the health, the subsistence and comforts of human life;
> 6) And generally, to form them to habits of reflection and correct action, rendering them examples of virtue to others and of happiness within themselves.[2]

This frames the question: Were we in the Service-Learning Program trying to bring together what cannot be held together? What ought not to be held together in an undergraduate curriculum?

In answering the first part of the question, it should be remembered that we were not a new institution, a la Hampshire or Santa Cruz; we were a long-established, conventional liberal arts college turned into a university. And we obviously lacked the authority of a former president as Rector. We were, frankly, marginal to the institution in which it was hoped, by a few, that we might bring about significant changes.

As for the second part, although often expressed in prose unworthy of association with the founder of the University of Virginia, our objectives were strikingly similar to his aspiration. However, we began after a century and one half of a deepening of the split between the liberal and the practical in American society. Not to mention that our society had become far more pluralistic and more equalitarian than Mr. Jefferson could have imagined.

These reflections prove nothing. But there may be some value in seeing our frustrations in perspective. Humanistic learning can be consoling when it cannot be effectual.

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[1] Christopher Lasch, "The Jeffersonian Legacy," in Lally Wymouth, ed., Thomas Jefferson (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1973), p. 237.

[2] Roy J. Honeywell, The Educational Work of Thomas Jefferson, Appendix B (Charlottesville, Virginia: University of Virginia Press, 1962).

## III. SUMMARY OF GROUP DISCUSSIONS

One of the purposes of this workshop was to allow the participants to reflect upon and share their experiences with service-learning and similar experiential education programs. Most such reflection and sharing was done within loosely structured small group discussions. While it was not the purpose of this workshop to provide definitive solutions to participants' problems (and indeed such solutions were not forthcoming), small group discussions did often center on specific practical problems as well as on theoretical issues. A broad range of topics was covered and much of the discussion was of interest primarily to those directly involved in the programs represented. However, there were several topics that seemed to be of interest to a cross section of workshop participants, and, therefore, might be worth identifying to others. They are outlined below.

One of the most commonly discussed topics was the meaning of "service" in a service-learning program. There were nearly as many definitions as there were programs represented. Definitions ranged from a strictly interpreted concept of "service to society" to "service" as a generic term for nearly any work placement. There was no attempt to develop a standard definition of service, but it was generally agreed that each program needed to be very clear about that meaning for itself.

There were also other issues that focused on service. For example, there was discussion as to whether service is valuable in itself or whether it is valuable because it promotes certain kinds of learning. Although some participants agreed that service itself could be a valuable part of a higher education program, others were interested only in any learning that resulted. Related discussion explored the practical problem of how one measures what is learned through experiential learning. Many possibilities were discussed, but no general agreement was reached. Much of that discussion--pro and con--centered on the use of student journals. Another issue that was discussed that relates to service was whether "values" can be taught through service. While discussion of the teaching of values was sometimes spirited, it was not particularly fruitful because of the ambiguity surrounding the issue of how a university may legitimately address questions of value.

A concern among most of the participants was the problem of matching individual students with appropriate internships. There were few specific suggestions as to how to do it, except that such matching must be done carefully and deliberately and not left to chance. Another placement related problem that was of concern to some of the participants was that of student interns competing with unemployed persons for scarce jobs. Some institutions avoided the problem by prohibiting paid internships. One institution made an individual judgement in the case of each paid internship, not approving those which were judged to be competitive with unemployed workers. Another institution created satellite service organizations which in turn provided the institution with internships.

A final topic of discussion was the usefulness of the George Washington model of service-learning to other institutions. The George Washington Service-Learning Program developed partly in response to specific circumstances that existed at that institution. It was not presented at the workshop as a model which other institutions should copy, and, in fact, participants from other institutions showed little inclination to do so. However, many participants did indicate that they felt that some features of the GW model could be useful to other institutions. Of particular interest to some was the possibility of combining experiential learning and classroom learning into a single program which should be more acceptable to traditional faculty than a program of experiential learning alone.

As suggested in the above remarks, the small group discussions identified many problems but developed few clear solutions. It was our belief, however, that deliberate reflection upon our own and others' experiences combined with a collective examination of mutual problems was a useful exercise.

# LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

## Attending From Other Institutions and Organizations

Jim Case, Program Coordinator, Office of the Chaplain, Johns Hopkins University
Teresa Grana, Associate Curator for Secondary Education, National Collection of Fine Arts
Betsy Herrick, Co-Coordinator of Volunteers, Common Cause
Albert N. Keim, On Campus Coordinator, Institutional Development Project CASC, Eastern Mennonite College
James C. Livingston, Dean of the Undergraduate Program, College of William and Mary
Claire M. McCormick, Assistant to the Academic Dean, Trinity College
Frank McGuire, Director of Volunteers, Superior Court of D. C.
Dixie J. Miller, Director, Office of Continuing Education, Hood College
Neil Seldman, Director, Institute for Local Self-Reliance
W. Core Smith, Intern Coordinator, The National Suggestion Box
Bruce C. Souders, Chairman, Arts and Science Faculty, Shenandoah College and Conservatory of Music

## Attending From George Washington University

Marcella Brenner, Professor of Education; Former Service-Learning Teacher
Marshall W. Davies, Coordinator, Service-Learning Program, Division of Experimental Programs
Susan Flashman, Recent GW Graduate; Former Service-Learning Student
Roderick S. French, Coordinator, Humanities Development Program, Division of Experimental Programs
Nathan C. Garner, Assistant Professor of Drama; Service-Learning Teacher
Lois Goldberg, Recent GW Graduate; Former Service-Learning Student
Chuck Hadley, Student, GWU
Pam L. Lawrence, Recent GW Graduate; Former Service-Learning Student
Robin Lewis, Supervising Attorney, Community Legal Clinic, National Law Center

Clarence C. Mondale, Director,
Division of Experimental Programs
Honey Nashman, Director, Office of Laboratory Experience,
School of Education
Lori Seader, Recent GW Graduate, Former Service-Learning
Student
Eric S. Sirulnik, Director, Community Legal Clinic,
National Law Center
Phyllis L. Stewart, Assistant Professor of Sociology;
Service-Learning Teacher
Anne Tongren, Assistant in Instruction for a Service-
Learning Class
Gregory H. Williams, Assistant Director, Division of
Experimental Programs; Service-Learning Teacher

Guest Experts

Morris T. Keeton, Provost and Vice President,
Antioch College
Robert Sexton, Office for Experiential Education,
University of Kentucky
Frank D. van Aalst, Dean of Career Development,
College of Charleston